

Childhood Education

*The Magazine for Teachers of Young Children
To Stimulate Thinking Rather Than Advocate Fixed Practice*

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FRANCES MAYFARTH, *Editor*

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Next Month—

■ Alice Keliher, chairman of the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association, has prepared an article on the theme for the April issue, "Learning to Live Together." She will discuss the nature and quality of human relationships as they affect the living together of teachers and children.

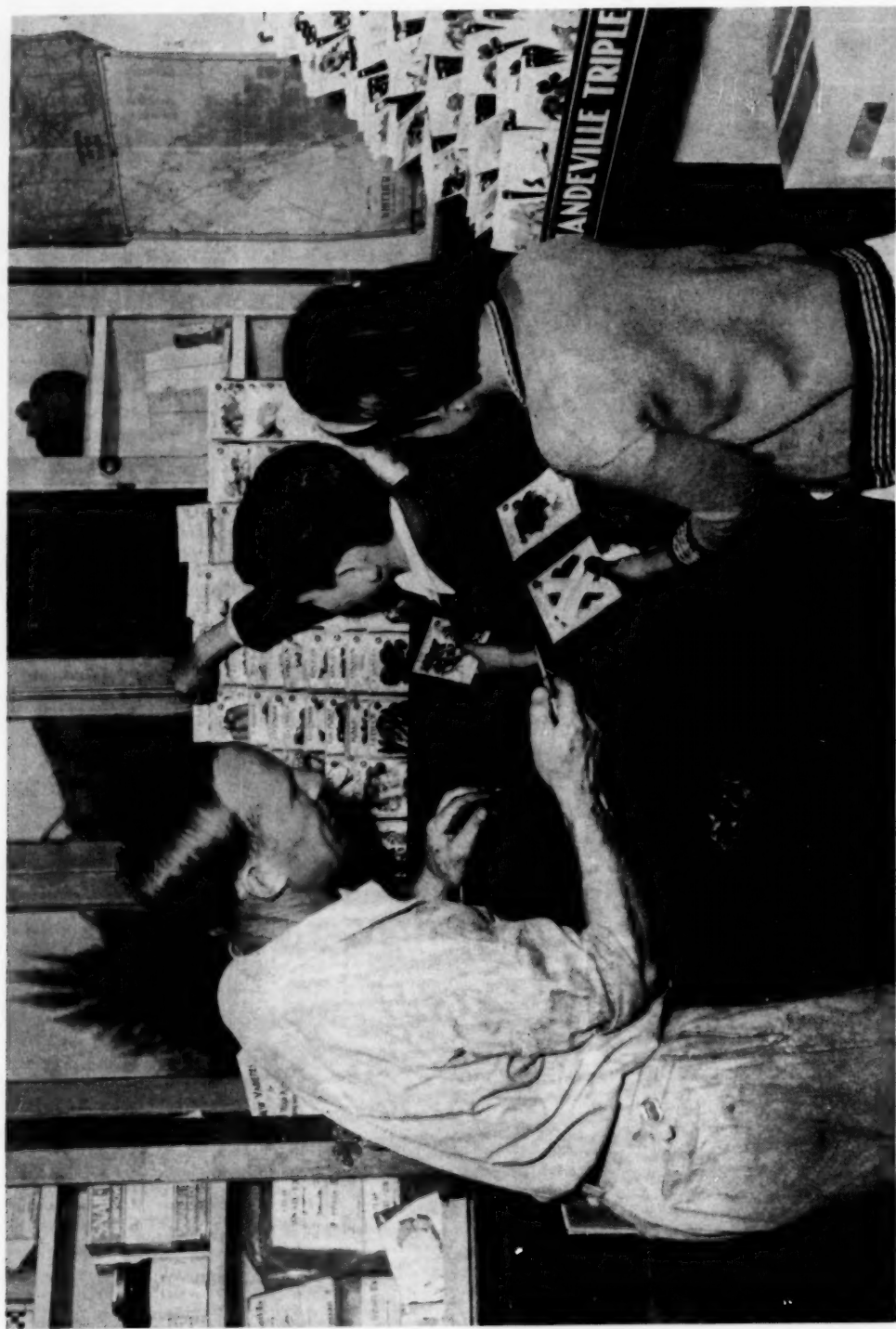
There are to be two articles on reading: "The How and Why of Non-Oral Reading" by James McDade and Mary Gillies of Chicago, and a description of an experimental reading program by Mary Reese, Wilmette, Illinois. An article on art values in young children's paintings has been prepared jointly by Walter and Mildred Julian Isaacs of Seattle, Washington.

Laura Hooper, supervisor of elementary grades at Newton, Massachusetts, has prepared an article on "Children and Community Activities", based on the results of a questionnaire study sent to more than one hundred persons in different parts of the country. It gives the point of view of many teachers toward school sponsored community activities, and their evaluation of them in terms of learning experiences for children.

EXTRA COPIES—Orders for extra copies of this issue must be received by the Association for Childhood Education, by the tenth of the month of issue.

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From "Their First Years in School" by Lorraine Sherer,
Los Angeles County Board of Education, 1939

Buying Seeds for the School Garden

Growth Toward Independence

ALL LIVING BEINGS move from the dependence of infancy to the independence of maturity. As teachers our function is so to guide the child in this quest for maturity that he may become a happy, zestful, and effective adult.

Since children grow at different rates and differ widely in capacity and interest, the essence of good teaching lies, first, in evaluating the child's capacity and development, and, second, in providing him with experiences that stimulate optimal growth. But this is not to be done in one area alone—our interest in the whole child requires a balanced growth. How is this to be accomplished? Underlying all specific procedures the fact that the child, as an adult, takes the responsibility for his own decisions and actions, must be recognized.

If children are to be prepared for life, freedom for choice and decision under guidance is the best educational practice. There follows a simple and clear principle with which to test each procedure: "Does what I do make the child more dependent upon me as a teacher, or more independent?" Once this question is put, the answer to many practical problems appears. The child receives an allowance permitting him to make decisions in spending small amounts, in order that he may handle larger amounts later; he has some freedom in choosing his own clothes because later he will choose all his clothes; he is given some opportunity to plan his work and direct his affairs because later that responsibility will devolve upon him completely. Only through small day-to-day experiences in the exercise of choice and decision does the capacity for accepting responsibility in larger affairs develop.

AND WE MUST remember that ours is a democratic society, established on the theory that the individual has rights because he can be trained to exercise those rights without abuse in co-operation with others. Whether or not a democratic society can continue to exist, whether or not the ills of our society can be met, depend in no small degree upon the ability of each teacher to envisage her relations with children in terms of this principle. With each forward step of her children toward self-reliance and democratic co-operation, the teacher makes a direct contribution to the larger relations of our society.—*John E. Anderson, Director of the Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota.*

What Makes Young Teachers Old and Old Teachers Young?

IT IS THE FERTILITY and use of ideas—the ability to do original thinking and to put thinking into action that gives some teachers life-long youthfulness. Add to this an enthusiasm that assures interest in the world at large, ability to enjoy people, a fertile imagination, willingness to understand children and we have the essence of a youthful spirit. Lacking these abilities some teachers are old the day they graduate from college. They are the individuals who invariably find the effort of understanding and experimenting with new ideas too strenuous for comfort. Old in spirit, closed in mind to any deviation from a well-worn pattern of thinking, they hold contempt for change and creativity as time-wasting and impossible of accomplishment.

The young teacher is that person who has a wealth of ideas, fortitude, stamina, and energy enough to be consumed with the interests of the children with whom she works. She is alert to their ideas and eager to know and to follow their thinking. What a contrast she is to the automaton who, devoid of an investigative spirit, finds it impossible to try out new ventures at any time. In one instance, a worn and weary mind met a new freedom made possible through movable furniture with a quick and ready order to have the chairs and tables nailed down!

THAT TEACHER is forever young who is alert to possibilities, who experiments, who has the courage of her convictions which are based on observation and reasoning. Whether she is old or young in years, it is her sustaining enthusiasm that leads children to work with ecstatic purpose.

With a true zest for living, inside or outside the school, this teacher has a youthful personality and appearance despite her years. Indeed, she actually now and then selects clothes in colors and textures pleasing to the children. In sharing her birthday gifts, a certain kindergarten teacher delighted the children by bringing samples of the material for her two new summer dresses. Imagine what fun the kindergartners had when those samples took form and were worn at school!

The white hair and smile-wrinkles that bespeak youthful personality and joyous living are no handicap; but spare our schools from the lustrous curls under which rests a fixed and rigidly-set brain!

—Ellen M. Olson, *Chicago Teachers College*.

Work And The Good Life

Mrs. Lambert, director of teacher education for the Summer Play Schools Association, New York City, describes here the various work experiences common to most individuals in their growth toward independence. She points out how the school may help to develop attitudes toward work which will contribute to the good life of the individual and society.

THE TASK of developing in children a constructive, realistic attitude toward work in a society suffering from job malnutrition is an unbelievable challenge. Work, considered an inalienable right and believed in whole-heartedly by a population which has pulled itself out of the wilderness through pioneering and hard work, can scarcely be divorced from our mores.

In the workaday world, however, there is a large no man's land of no jobs, changing jobs, or makeshift jobs. Knowing this, the task of passing on to the young an attitude toward work or workers becomes paramount, despite its overwhelming difficulty. In addition to facing the hard fact that there is a scarcity of jobs, there are still extant myths from the past which must be obliterated—"hard work and its rewards", "anyone who wishes to work can", "the lazy ones are out of work", or "they would rather be supported than work." Mixed up with these is the wishful thinking that the Horatio Alger ideal from rags to riches is still possible to achieve.

There was a time in the history of the world, and not so long ago, when a boy followed in his father's footsteps because there were few other footsteps to follow.

A girl fulfilled "a woman's destiny" and became a wife and mother. Initiation into the work world began by imitation, apprenticeship, and finally, full responsibility was assumed. The result was a caste system in which the shoemaker's son became a shoemaker and the banker's son, a banker. The lot of the girl was pretty much the same, whether in a hut or mansion. She was born for marriage and child-rearing, no matter what her station of life might be. If a boy became rebellious at these restrictions and cried out for greater fields to conquer, he might become a soldier, a sailor, or adventurer; a girl in rebellion turned toward the stage or the more modest pursuit of governess or teacher.

During the pioneer era, also, a young man wanted land like his father's to cultivate. Young men and their brides went West to settle virgin territory and their children in turn tilled the soil. It was a fluid society, however, in which men could change their work with the growth of population and invention. Despite this freedom, the majority chose the ways of their fathers and mothers. With an ever-ready frontier, young people with courage had a feeling of security in the world, and they believed, with some justification, that those who worked hard succeeded, for they saw evidences of success all around them.

But even after the Horatio Alger period in American life had sung its swan song, its romantic afterglow was reflected in the vocational dreams of our young people who found new affirmation of this faith in the magazines and movies. Marrying the boss's daughter and living in luxury was

not something to be taken lightly. Even the august academic strongholds gave such advice to young graduates more in earnest than in facetiousness. The slogans were reassuring and inspirational.

In the confusion of this present period in our history, these goals are a snare and a delusion but it takes almost a generation for myths like these to die. Those of us who work with children now are seeing part of the dream broken.

The mass of people in the world work because they must. They have few choices. A select few choose their work because of position or status in the world. A still smaller number work because of the intrinsic satisfactions which the work creates. If educators and parents had their choice, it would be toward this latter ideal that they would direct children. They would say, "There is nothing so satisfying in the long run of life as doing something well, no matter how humble, and doing something that you love to do." It is impossible, however, to say this unless young people feel that they are needed by society, and that their youth is not "packed away on ice", as someone has put it, until the economic order changes and releases them. Unless they are needed, they will not have great interest in craftsmanship or high standards of work. "Busy work" is not a solution; it is merely a sop.

Today the word "work" is a magic word to hundreds of young children whose fathers have been or are on relief. To them work is a wonderful something, no matter what it is. To be able to say to a contemporary, "My father works in the bakery" or "My father runs a big truck" is of tremendous satisfaction. To the boy or girl who cannot answer the eternal childhood question, "What does your father do?", there is a vacuum that somehow cannot be filled. Sometimes the answer is, "My ma works." This is a painful answer. Relief, W.P.A., and the insecurity of other jobs

have made children more aware of work and its implications than was true in past generations when it was believed that only lazy people were out of work and willing workers were occupied.

Interest in Work As Play

Work patterns are of interest to children of all ages, but particularly from preschool age to nine or ten when the work of their immediate world is incorporated in their play actively. There is no question of status, money, or satisfaction beyond that involved in play itself. The heart of their problem is attempting to imitate dramatically the work patterns of their adults. Girls recreate the home-cooking, cleaning, baking, taking care of doll babies; boys dramatize workers outside the home—fireman, policeman, milkman, groceryman, truck driver, train engineer, air pilot, farmer. In some communities the work of miners, lumbermen, fishermen or harvesters is dramatized because this is the dramatic, dynamic work which they see and understand. At this period of life, the broker's son may envy the policeman's child because he understands better the importance of the policeman's job.

In watching children at play on the streets of New York, I have been impressed over and over again by the persistence of interest in the work of builders, excavators, brick layers, carpenters or riveters. Boys as well as girls hang over gaping cavities to watch work which to them is concrete and real. In the young child's world, occupations like lawyer, engineer, astronomer, philosopher, or professor have little meaning. It is the pedestrian everyday active work which is visible before his eyes which seems important—the doing of things—which lends itself to dramatization and action. In the rural areas the train engineer, the truck driver or the postman on his rounds represent more colorful occupations than the man with the hoe. Attitudes

toward work, one might say, depend on one's age and needs.

There is a story told about a doting aunt who came to see her young nephew. As most grownups who try to make conversation with the young will do, she asked him what he would like to be when he grew older. "A painter," was the prompt reply. "How nice," she said all aflutter at the aesthetic choice. "I like to ride on the scaffold," he added.

Little girls often begin by being mothers and nurses in their play life because it is close to their experiences and is most satisfying, but with attendance at school, their interests change and they spend many hours playing teacher. On the streets of New York, amid the clatter and turmoil of a hot city street, little girls with this play interest will collect small bands of willing followers, seat them on the steps of a brownstone house, and proceed to drill and scold them in good old-fashioned, "school marm" manner. They also enjoy being storekeepers or office clerks. Less sedate and more adventuresome children love being actresses and perform their tap dancing acts on the sidewalks for the edification of their audiences.

Interest in Work As a Means to Status or Income

This type of play which recreates the work of the immediate world is far removed, however, from interest in vocations or work for money or status. Thus children's interest in occupations at the young age level is in learning about more remote occupations by watching work which goes on around them.

As they grow older they become aware of the status value in certain kinds of occupations. The clean white collar job is more alluring than the grubby, digging kind of work which appeals to the more naive and younger child. Wearing handsome clothes, dashing about in a beautiful car, sitting at

a fine desk, pushing buttons for "service" are appealing aspects of white collar work. At this stage, children are still unaware of the actual money rewards or the scarcity of these jobs. They know only that certain types of work bring greater rewards, such as clothes and external possessions.

In the past few decades, perhaps, as a heavy reaction against the pioneer tradition or the agrarian culture children of many workers have made great drives toward work in the middle-class bracket, toward the "white collardom heaven". The father who was a good craftsman—carpenter, plumber or mechanic—often educated his son to become a clerk or deskman if he could manage it. He prided himself, perhaps, on his skill in handling tools or materials, but he found it difficult to transfer this feeling about workmanship to his child, for most of the work he did was away from home in large factories or shops. On the farms there is still time and opportunity for learning the work of the farm, provided the children stay there long enough to learn before going to the nearest town or city. This exodus from the land to the city indicates that somehow the farmer has been unable to give his children a feeling for the land or that mechanization has pushed them out, or that tenancy has reduced the attractiveness of living on the land.

In a society which had to value hard work—manual labor—the man who produced the most by the sweat of his brow was the respected citizen. The phrase from "shirt sleeves to shirt sleeves in three generations" gives a clue to the cycle of work and implies the attitude toward work which the shirt-sleeved father inculcated into his family: "I worked by the sweat of my brow, but my children will have something better to do." Consequently, he struggled to educate his children so that they might be given opportunities to do work which had "status"—banking or the pro-

fessions. As they ascended the economic scale they were removed from manual work or craftsmanship. When one of the many recurrent economic depressions appeared, they were often the ones thrown from the pinnacle of success. Thus the cycle from shirt sleeves to shirt sleeves began again.

Interest in Work As a Vocation

Working for money and an interest in jobs which yield money is one of the last stages before the final vocational selection is made, or the final push into any kind of job is tried. In the lower income range, children learn that work for money is imperative. There is no question about it. When the father is no longer the provider and the mother takes his place, or when the family is on relief, having a job with a salary attached to it becomes the biggest thing in life—the very thing which gives status to grownups. The kind of job is unimportant.

In such families, however, children are presented with very few work patterns. Housekeeping itself in these homes differs in many ways from that in the traditional middle-class home—in food, clothes, and family chores. The mother often provides canned foods or prepared foods. Girls, consequently, learn poor home-making patterns. The boy often is more unfortunate because with few standards to help him, he may become a drifter, an unemployable without any real feeling for work even though he knows that working for money is satisfying. Without a lift from the home in the direction of standards of work or from the school or community in providing avenues of learning and working, the child has a difficult time in developing attitudes toward work, craftsmanship, or service. It is true that the young boy or girl will run errands or do chores for money, but such work is almost a leisure-time activity in comparison with the responsibility of a

real job, and it is not an adequate experience upon which to base an occupation which one follows for a livelihood.

In the middle-class group, where work is still available, status is a tremendous motivating force in vocational selection. There is much talk of money and position in these homes as well as comparisons of standards of living in the home of the doctor, lawyer, and business man. It is, perhaps, the children from this group that the school can help most in evaluating work by developing respect for all work, whether white collar or manual; by developing an understanding of the place of all work in the scheme of things, and an awareness that white collar jobs are often the blind alleys in the job world. It is largely in the middle-class that clean work is considered precious and has prestige value. High schools and colleges are geared to take care of the preparation for "clean work" occupations, but they cannot produce the jobs themselves.

Very often the boy in the middle-class group who would love to become a doctor is deterred when he thinks of the long, expensive road ahead in time and money, and decides on a business career because it is immediately effectual. In making this decision he acts like the boy on a lower economic level who leaves a trade school to drive a truck because he sees money ahead. The economic pressure makes boys and girls of all classes choose work that brings them money out of the grab bag of available jobs; only a few are lucky enough to choose jobs which are suited to their capacities. The need for money and independence are perhaps the most decisive motives which influence job selection. The idea of permanence in the job or the possibilities of growth in it are almost not considered at all.

Due to the obsolescence of certain types of work, changes in manufacture and farming or the creation of new jobs due to



Courtesy Newton, Massachusetts, Public Schools

When work is play and play is work—no caste systems, no sex discrimination, but freedom to choose what one wishes to do.

inventions or advancements in mechanical equipment, the comprehensive understanding of the ultimate or appropriate job is almost an impossible achievement for the young person. For example, radio made work for many people; the development of synthetic products created jobs for scores of others; on the other hand, mechanization of agriculture threw thousands of people out of work and made no provision for their employment elsewhere in agriculture. Trucking made inroads on railroad jobs. No one knows when a well-established piece of work will be replaced by a machine. There are job casualties on all fronts.

The fortunate people in this uncertain world are those few individuals who work for the satisfaction of it without regard for money or prestige. They represent a small number but comprise a significant group.

Among them are artists, writers, inventors, scientists. They are the pathfinders who get more satisfaction in the work itself than they do when rewarded with recognition and wealth. They furnish powerful models and inspiration for the young.

How Desirable Work Attitudes May be Built

It sounds utopian, therefore, to say that children should be taken all over the country to expose them to as many occupations as possible in order that they may become acquainted with the work of the world and the variety of jobs which exist at any one period. Our country is a land of many regions, each differing sufficiently from one another in work possibilities to indicate the importance of individual study. For example, the dairy farm differs from the truck farm, the cotton plantation from

the grazing country, timber land from mining. Urban work is more uniform.

In some areas of the country growth and new ways of living are being developed—land near the great dams and the new housing communities; in other sections a static type of life has been achieved. To the child of the migratory laborer, the work of the world is almost cut down to the experience of his immediate family. This is true to a lesser extent in the city but true, nevertheless, and brings us back again to the way in which work patterns of the contemporary world can be passed on to children.

However, with homes often demoralized from a work point of view and threatened with insecurity even though work is being carried on, the building of desirable attitudes towards workmanship, work, and workers falls heavily upon schools and community agencies. Beginning with young children of elementary school age, a good foundation for building these attitudes can be laid through experiences in the use of abundant materials—wood, tools, paints, foods—and through activities such as cooking, dressmaking, carpentry, printing, painting, gardening, done not as an activity program upon which to hang the three R's but as a functional form of education. This might mean, too, the simplification of some of the materials used in a vocational high school to meet the age needs of the child of elementary school age. If such classroom activities as the care of the distribution of milk, the lunchroom, shop and offices were extended to the whole school they would demonstrate the meaning of high standards in work, craftsmanship, skills, and service.

This type of education has merely been tried in the so-called experimental schools. If we are to develop real understanding and appreciation of work itself we must make an honest effort to teach these skills and responsibilities to children in the elemen-

tary school and to extend the vocational aspects of the highschool. These older boys and girls may make surveys and studies of community work, evaluating them in dollars and cents, and thus learn about comparative incomes. Such studies might help them realize that the doctor, lawyer, or engineer are not much better off than the skilled carpenter or plumber; that each has his place in the world; that not all people are qualified for professional jobs (parents' pressures notwithstanding), and that craftsmanship is as satisfying to the worker as status is to the professional man or woman.

In addition to pushing the functional form of education into the highschool years, an apprentice system for young people might be attempted with the school rather than industry responsible for it, in order to avoid exploitation. New types of work might then be tried out—patterns unknown to the home or to the young people themselves. The C.C.C. without military strings has been perhaps a small beginning for potential occupations in reforestation, soil conservation, and general husbanding of resources.

In other words, learning how to work with materials is the first step toward learning how to direct one's own affairs; learning how to work at a real job is the beginning of understanding the importance of satisfaction in work. The movies to the contrary, young people would accept the new work status if given half a chance. The knowledge that salaries and incomes have been levelled, that any work is at a premium, and that the day of bonanza fortunes is almost over for all but the few—is helpful in reorientating one's life. The knowledge, too, that increased transportation and communication and mechanization make the good life more possible of attainment on much less money than the escape literature leads one to believe, is a ray of light in this world in transition.

Learning To Use Money

Money may become a valuable tool or a dangerous weapon depending upon the type of guidance given children in learning to spend, borrow, and earn it. Learning to direct one's money affairs is an important aspect of growing toward independence, for money must become neither slave nor master but rather a social medium for the exchange of certain purchasable commodities. With the development of understanding the value of money must come also the development of appreciation for those things that money cannot buy, the only sound basis of real security. Miss McLin is director of the Child Education Foundation, New York City.¹

ONCE UPON a time all roads led to Rome. But for the modern child traveling toward independent direction of his own affairs, there is no such indiscriminate choice of routes. In fact, dependable guides all point to a single road, a somewhat bumpy trail through the Alps of experience. The absurdity of "Hang your clothes on a hickory limb but don't go near the water" has improved with age—and advances in child psychology. Wisdom, financial or otherwise, is still the daughter of Memory and Experience.

Let us walk, therefore, with Dame Experience and see where she would lead in the process of a young child's learning to direct his own money affairs.

If between the ages of two and three, merely as an onlooker, a child has the opportunity at various times to accompany an adult who is marketing or neighbor-

hood-shopping and to see money paid for things, he will gain the idea quite naturally that money is an instrument for exchange. Mark you, all procedures at this age should be natural and cooperative; let there be no lessons other than the wordless lessons inherent in the experience. Early learning should come by absorption.

As the child becomes accustomed to seeing you pay for things, some day when you are occupied with other purchases, give him ten cents, the exact amount of money to cover the cost, and ask him to buy a loaf of bread from another counter.

After many casual opportunities of this kind in making purchases at irregular times, one day give him ten cents again, this time an amount in excess of the cost, with the request to buy a large apple, so that he will be given five cents change to bring to you.

At a later time express the desire to purchase something needed for the house; ask the cost, open your pocketbook, and discover that you haven't enough money. Your child will likely prove as sage as one I listened to the other day. Without a moment's hesitation, the small girl of three observed, "Then we'll just have to wait until another day, won't we?"

You have very likely noted that these experiences with money have occurred in buying necessities and this augurs well for the child so far. Too many boys and girls have been and still are being brought up to feel that money, and especially one's own, should be spent for luxuries only

¹ The Child Education Foundation is a center of educational service through its four departments: The Teachers Training School, The Children's Home School, The Advisory Service, and The Parents' Consultation Service.

and to begrudge money spent for necessities. Poor housekeepers are the result of this experience! Students of college age, who have money in their own names, will go to a point of danger before they are willing to incur the expense of a physician; even faculty members of a riper age have been known to shy at such necessities.

During the period when the child is still buying with your money, take him from time to time to purchase a toy in which he is so interested that money is incidental. Another experience which will be of value to him at this time is the pleasure of buying the kind of flowers or fruits within his knowledge for those who are ill. While the latter is not necessarily a luxury to the child of this age, he will readily enough weave the idea of luxuries into the background of everyday necessities. There will come the times when the child will want something that demands money and he himself will ask for it in order to obtain the desired object. An allowance not yet having been given, the money asked for will be supplied for the specific purpose.

Do you see what has been happening throughout this long pre-allowance period? The young child has been given experience in spending money: first, using it with the adult; second, the adult giving it to him to use as the occasion arose. The need for an allowance has been created.

An Allowance—a Tool in Learning to Use Money

An allowance should follow experience as evidence of an understanding and as an organization of a need. This would preclude giving Bobby of three an allowance just because Johnny of five was ready for one and because it didn't seem fair to give to one without giving to the other. When Johnny is twenty, ready to work and earn money, Bobby at eighteen will not be expected to earn his. In other words, when it concerns luxuries, the different ages are

often given the same, but when it comes to necessities there is a difference in what is expected of them.

When the need for an allowance has been indicated, and not before, a conference should decide the amount, the time and way of receiving it, and the purpose of it. "Would it be better to have twenty-five cents every week or fifty cents every two weeks?" might be considered among other things. The discussion of the amount brings an understanding of what an allowance means before the child has one, and it will then not be thrown down the drainpipe as was one child's first allowance.

An allowance should be dealt with realistically and formally, not as a game or something hit or miss. It should be an allotment of the family income, not a dribble or a dole, nor should it be looked upon as a favor. It should be an instrument of education in the use of money. Let the end be "The Allowance as a Tool in Learning to Manage Money" rather than "Learning to Manage an Allowance."

While those who have given most thought to the development of young children through an allowance hold different opinions as to whether it should include a part to give away, a part to save, and a part to use in any way the child chooses, or be given over entirely to the child's choice; there is an emphatic agreement that there be a plan understood by everyone concerned with the allowance, and that the possession of the part or whole given over to the child's choice be kept inviolate.

Even in the beginning, the allowance established on this basis should be large enough to allow opportunity for decision and choice of the things the child really has some use for. This is particularly true in a city, while a child in a small town might be given a smaller allowance because of the closer proximity to the source of supplies.

On the principle that learning is a consequent effect of an event, our procedure is clear if after he has spent his allowance in one fell swoop the child sees something he wants more than anything else. We shall not have to blame, worry, or get excited; let the situation bring its natural consequence—and look forward to a better choice next time. Refinement of judgment can be hoped for only through decision-making and consequence-taking. Once the child is given an allowance, it is more important that he learn how to spend it than that he always spend it well.

Because the ability to use money is developed through progressive practice, it is better to increase an allowance by small amounts and at frequent intervals. The increase should be determined by the need and the knowledge of the child at the time, and the increased allowance should be commensurate with his responsibilities and obligations.

By the age of eight or nine, besides spending money for allotments and indulgences, the child will want to pay for his own motion pictures unless he is an invited guest. Then, too, he will want to treat his friends sometimes. Before twelve the allowance should include not only recreation and gifts but some clothing items. By fifteen it should extend to most of his own regular wardrobe. Before going to college, the boy and girl should know the amount that has gone out for the entire schooling and should be prepared to make plans for further schooling.

A college student should make a budget on the basis of money deposited in the bank for each month or for a longer time, draw checks, and send monthly statements home. This arrangement should continue as long as support comes from the family. Accounts and budgets should be progressive, beginning as soon as the child has the requisite knowledge, but the planning, the budgeting, should be emphasized rather

than the accounting. This process should never be made an irksome task; there should be pleasure and pride in using money wisely. The proof of the value of the budget will be in the foresight and the restraint it brings.

Developing a Sense of Real Values

Simultaneously with the long preparation for an allowance, there should be experiences which give a sense of values to the young child in relation to money. Things that apparently have no money value should be given importance in the home, such as good times, games that can be invented, dramatics, making use of things at hand, interesting walks, decorating the table, making a change for a guest without any expenditure of money—in all, the emphasis being placed on the good time together.

As time passes, casually lead the child to compare well-made toys that are sturdy and lasting with flimsy and perishable ones, also those whose services are permanent with those that are temporary or soon outgrown. There can be the recognition of the suitability of clothes for differing occasions and appreciation for clothes that will take punishment though they are not appropriate to the drawing room.

When we are asked by young children why the family doesn't have certain things that others have, let us not cry poverty; rather let us emphasize differences in tastes and desires. Let us take care that we do not fall into the way of saying we cannot afford a thing the child wants just to put him off. When the child is older, let us explain relatively, talking in terms of budget rather than of poverty—not that we cannot afford turkey and ice cream every day but on certain days we should have cheaper meat because we shall want turkey on Sunday; if we walk ten blocks instead of taking a taxi, we shall have a ride on the pony when we get to the park;

if we would rather ride in a taxi, all right. It must all be casual and matter-of-fact, however, as well as consistent. Fear and worry should not be shown in relation to money because a child should never get the attitude that money is the source of security. He may later have "financial shell shock".

Learning to Save Money

As a child is learning to appreciate money through guidance and to demonstrate his ability to use it, his allowance should be primarily for spending, for using. However, saving should be led up to as progressively as his allowance was and certain experiences in spending and saving given simultaneously. There might be the gradual saving of the parent for the boy's education during which time he would see his mother take the dollar which she might have used for something she wanted at the time and put it in the bank for his future education instead. The boy may become interested and sometime want to put something in the bank, too. This or any other procedure on the part of the parent must be perfectly honest and not overdone. The boy is seeing someone definitely planning ahead to save something to use later for someone else. There should be no moralizing but he should hear about it casually and see it done naturally.

It should be kept in mind that very little saving can be expected before the child is five or six years old. Up to this age, time is not a known or recognized element. In February a boy of five decided he wanted a bicycle. He was receiving a ten-cent weekly allowance. It was agreed that if he would save his allowance until the following Christmas, the father would add to it so that the bicycle could be bought for Christmas. The father became disturbed because the boy couldn't go through with it. It was, of course, too large a project over too long a time.

A child's first saving should be for a very specific and nearby goal to encourage the feeling of success. Learning to save must progress slowly and cumulatively, as must all learning. As he grows older the time between the initial saving and the goal can be lengthened. Sometimes we find out how much a child wants a thing by the way he saves for it. Unless the project is too large and too remote, if he doesn't want it and gives up, do not supplement his allowance.

Saving money at certain periods may be a part of its use. Development should be toward spending for needs—the child's own and others. It should also be toward giving for pure joy, because of abundance and possession, or because of the ability to see the need of others. If a child saves it should be that he may use money later in larger quantities. It is better to save for some specific purpose rather than for an end in itself. It has been said, "The ideal attitude toward money is balanced appreciation of it as a means toward justifiable ends."

Borrowing and Earning Money

When a need has the assurance of the child's ability to pay for it and the need becomes an immediate one like that of ice skates in January, borrowing can be made as much of a learning process as spending and saving. In order to make the procedure educational, however, it should be carried on just as realistically and formally as an older person would proceed with it. Interest should be paid, and paid with appreciation, no matter how low the rate is, not as a burden or a disciplinary measure, but for the privilege that has been granted. There must be fair play and as much respect between the borrower and the lender, whichever role the adult or the child takes in the transaction, as the adult would want the child, when grown to maturity, to show to a bank or a business

associate. An experience in borrowing often loses opportunity to become of educational value: a boy and a girl of high school age had saved one hundred dollars. When their father needed money, this amount was turned over to him. There was no formality attending the transaction nor any record made of it. Even if the money had been returned, this boy and girl would not have learned the proper procedure in borrowing and lending.

Experience in spending an allowance has shown the child that money is merely an instrument of exchange and through it he has found the monetary value of the things he has bought. When a child, however, comes to the experience of exchanging his own effort for money, he then finds the commercial value of his effort. Therefore in earning money a child should be paid only for doing those things for which someone else would be employed. Negotiations should be made and carried out between the adult and the child with the same understanding and formality that any other employer and employee would require. The same responsibility should be expected of the child that would be expected of any employee. This would preclude money being paid to the child for work which would automatically fall to him as his obligation in the sharing of family activities; for personal favors; for bribery to be good, to be brave; or for high

marks. Today more than ever before great care should be taken not to substitute the goal of money for the satisfaction which can come only through achievement on which no arbitrary monetary value can be set, because we do not want any child to develop a scale of values based on money rather than upon the inherent satisfaction of fulfilling one's own capacities. The latter is a debt for which every individual has given a promissory note by virtue of his capacity.

Along this individually blazed trail over which experience has been leading him, the child may have often stumbled and even fallen over his own legs at times. If, however, money has never been used as a disciplinary measure in unrelated situations; if it has not been substituted as compensation for satisfaction of achievement; if it has not been made a symbol for power and success nor considered a purchaser of the finer things of life such as affection, loyalty, comradeship, which are among the unpurchasable, and if neither over-emphasis nor under-appreciation of its values have been felt; if, on the other hand, joy has been found in money as an instrument of exchange and an instrument of service without the fear and worry that sometimes go with it—then we may have some reason to believe the child has been learning to manage his own money and make it a valuable tool in his life.

Child

Understand me. Love me. Feel that your task
Is not one of burden and dread.

It is a challenge, an honor, a joy,
And know that I am just a boy,
But there is only one like me.

Teach me to live, to love, to earn;

To give, bless, suffer, feel for others, and to
learn

That I am one, but worthy only that which I
give the world.

This is the heart of your task, my guide,
And do not drag nor drive,
Just lead me by your side.

—BEILE BROCK.

From *North Dakota Teacher*, January 1939

A Speech Adjustment Program

Because the handicap of immature speech becomes so fixed by five or six years of age that in many cases clinical help is needed, Kokomo, Indiana, public schools provided a Speech Adjustment Clinic to help children make necessary social and emotional adjustments as well as speech corrections. Miss Routh is speech clinician in the Kokomo schools.

EACH YEAR there come to first grade rooms many children who are immature—socially, physically, mentally, and emotionally. Research and experience reveal that these children are still clinging to immature speech habits along with other generally immature reactions.

We cannot successfully adjust any one part of a child without considering and bringing into proper alignment his other faculties. There is no surer means of recognizing a child's lack of adjustment and immaturity than noting his reactions as he participates or fails to participate in his first organized social group—his school. A logical beginning for help in bringing about a child's social, emotional, and physical adjustment may be found in his speech, an important means of social participation. Out of a realization that more and more children need help in adjustment to a social order that grows more complex each day, and believing that in the absence of kindergartens the speech clinic was the logical agency to initiate the work, the speech adjustment program in Kokomo was begun. Many of today's children start to school without invaluable

preschool experiences and background which help them interpret the social and material world about them. They have not learned to participate in group activities and know little of social relationships.

Objectives of the Program

In recognition of a need to help in the adjustment of many preprimary children, and to provide them with enriching experiences so they can become happy, well-balanced children, the speech adjustment clinic has set for itself the following objectives: (1) to provide socializing activities for practice in group participation; (2) to increase speech facility and make it a pleasurable experience; (3) to coordinate motor activity with the production of speech and thereby improve the control of bodily movement and ease of vocal expression; (4) to provide training in more mature emotional reactions to real life situations.

In view of these objectives a series of units have been built around various speech sounds. These units follow in sequence the order in which research indicates that sounds merge as a child develops. For example, the first sounds a child uses are those that are most obvious—those made with lips (p,b,m,wh,w). These are followed by sounds made with the tongue and teeth, and the last to be developed are those formed in the back of the mouth and therefore least obvious—k,g,ng, etc. With this developmental order in mind the units are built to give experience in the use of sounds and to provide growth in stimulating activities.

What Each Unit Includes

One of the most vital parts of any social situation whether or not it be a classroom situation is the feeling of ease and good rapport among the members. To attain this every speech adjustment lesson is started with a relaxation exercise which may take the form of a story told by the teacher. This five or six minute period allows children to see the teacher as a calm and pleasant person with whom they feel at ease and quieted from any previous excitement.

A favorite relaxation exercise is that of Limber Lou, the rag doll, who sits on a chair and has limber arms, legs, and neck. Each boy or girl sits on his chair just as Limber Lou does and the teacher passes about looking for arms or legs that are like Limber Lou's. Many arms or legs may have "starch" in them or may be made out of cardboard and are therefore not like the rag doll's.

Game techniques are used which involve the use of certain specific speech muscles. Timid children are self-conscious about their speech and frequently become mumblers. In the pleasure of the game they unconsciously learn to use more lip, tongue, and jaw movement which consequently strengthens and coordinates the muscles of these parts. One of the favorite games is that of Mrs. Jack (tongue) and her house (mouth cavity). Mrs. Jack's house cleaning activities provide plenty of exercise in placing the tongue in various positions and at points designated.

A phase of the adjustment unit that is one of the most pleasurable and at the same time one of the most important, attempts to present a speech sound and coordinate it with a motor activity. In this type of activity children are not only learning new speech sounds but they are learning better control of the gross muscular movements so often distorted and uncontrolled in immature girls and boys. Experience in a speech clinic demonstrates that

any basic concept is more easily taught and longer retained if its teaching can be accompanied by some motor activity.

To illustrate how the motor and speech functions can be coordinated the following activity is quoted from one of the introductory units designed to practice the "b" sound. The teacher has already introduced the little boy with the funny name (Billy, Bi, Bi Bat) and has told the child he can do many funny things among which are:

Billy, Bi, Bi Bat

Can brush his coat (pause) like that
(The right hand brushes the left shoulder four times on "can brush his coat" then the left hand brushes the right shoulder twice on "like that").

Billy, Bi, Bi, Bat

Can butter his bread, like that
(Both arms extended, the right hand brushes the left in the rhythm count of the second line).

Billy, Bi, Bi, Bat

Can row a boat, like that
(With both arms extended forward, fists closed, the children pull towards the center of the body in rowing motion).

Funny little Billy

Bi, Bi, Bat.

Preprimary children need much practice in free, spontaneous speech. For several minutes in every adjustment lesson the children are encouraged to talk of their experiences, their pets, their toys and the myriad other things that interest them. The object of these free conversation periods is to give them the experience of finding pleasure in talking with others. Many times, especially at first, the teacher may have to stimulate speech through pictures, questions, or clever conversational leads. Many conversations will be thought-provoking on their level, each may share and enrich himself vicariously from the experience of others, and above all, each

one is learning to talk before others without fear.

Simple stories carrying a sequence of four or five ideas and emphasizing a particular speech sound may be told by the teacher. In order to provide practice in retaining a series of ideas the children are sometimes asked to retell the story after the teacher has finished. Incidentally, these children are again on their feet facing a group telling stories and, with proper guidance, finding pleasure in speech practice.

Speech activities include games that may be used on the playground, nursery rhymes that are good for drill on a particular sound, and simple tunes that provide rhythm practice as well as phonetic drill.

Techniques Used

To work successfully with immature children whose attention span and comprehension are undeveloped it is necessary to keep them happy and busy, and their activities varied, interesting, and purposeful. The play technique is used to a very large extent. Many old and familiar games are adapted to fit their needs. For instance, the finger play, "Dance, Thumbkin, Dance," is an example of one means of teaching and fixing the *th* sound.

Children's songs, dramatization in simple forms, and pantomime are used, as well as imitation of familiar animal sounds. To a small group there is little that will call forth a joyous response as quickly as an imaginary trip to the country and an imitation of the animals visited. The cat not only brings out a "Mew—Mew" response, but provides a good tongue loosening activity as the children show how the kitten laps milk.

Administration of Program

The application of the psychological principle of repetition at regularly spaced intervals is important to the success of the speech adjustment program. This means contacting the preprimary groups at regular periods each day. Since it is not always possible, nor perhaps always advisable for the speech clinician to make these daily contacts, the administration of the units falls upon the primary teachers. The teachers find that the regular period spent each day with small informal groups of from five to six preprimary children can be a reorganization of many of the activities they are already using at various times throughout the day.

Most of the units extend over one week and at least once during the week the clinician works with the children. At a teacher's request she will demonstrate the activity in the regular classroom. It is wise to limit the group engaging in the activity to as small a number as possible, preferably not over six. Even within these small numbers the grouping should be as homogeneous as possible. Our preprimary children are selected on the basis of their performance on the reading readiness and mental tests. Any child who scores below 60 enters the adjustment group and remains there until he is ready to read.

The program is too new to provide any very objective results. However, if teacher's opinions are to be noted, it is showing very positive results. The final test of the value of the program will be found in how well the early gains in speech improvement continue over a long period of time.

THE highest function of conservatism is to keep what progressiveness has accomplished.—*R. H. Fulton*

The Young Child

AND GRAPHIC EXPRESSION

Children, when they have something to say, have a means of expressing it in a provocative and graphic manner. Mrs. Hughes, director of the State Curriculum Laboratory at the University of New Mexico,¹ and Miss Stockdale, staff artist for the Curriculum Laboratory, present examples of children's graphic expression and discuss how they grew out of their general school experiences.

"LOOK! See how this youngster made his 'boys'. Just a swish of the pencil and they were complete."

"Thirteen baby chickens, and every one made exactly alike!"

"Here's this figure again. I've seen it several times. The little girl who made it must have admired her grandmother's 'hair do'."

"I had no idea children did things like these. Do you believe all children can draw this way?" This from a visiting supervisor.

The scene of this action was the State Curriculum Laboratory at the University of New Mexico where we were engaged in preparing a report of classroom work carried forward in several New Mexico public schools. For an entire school year the director had visited the schools and had thus come to know something of the community and the exact conditions of classroom work. The schools were engaged in trying out the new social studies program which made it possible for them to utilize more informal procedures and a wider range of classroom experiences.

¹ This organization was part of a three-year project which was concluded July, 1939.

Now all the materials from the cooperating classrooms were the objects of careful attention from the Laboratory staff. It was our job to organize them into a dynamic story of a year's partnership of teachers and pupils. We had, in addition to the teacher diaries and write-ups and our own experiences with the various groups, booklets, friezes, posters, movie strips, maps, charts, and single drawings all made by children and expressing *their own ideas in their own way*.

We learned much about children as we handled, sorted, chose, rejected, and again handled this storehouse of material. One thing we learned was that children, when they have something to say, have a means of expressing it in a provocative and graphic manner. They used pencil, crayon, and paint as an added means of telling their story.

The more we handled the materials from the classrooms, the more aware we became of the interesting ways in which children solve their problems of graphic expression. It was no trick at all for a third grade child to turn the airplane completely around so that we could get a view of the entrance to the plane and at the same time see the class lined up against the fence watching it. Not only did the young artist turn the plane around but he flattened out the wings so that we could see the men attending to the refueling. There was no detail of the class experience of going to the airport that was not portrayed. The child even went so far as to identify the teacher by the kodak which she carried.

It has been stated by several investi-

gators that children draw what they know rather than what they see. Because of this tendency we had lovely houses that showed elaborate interiors with stairways, beds, stoves, and even people carrying on their regular activities. In one picture the children were upstairs sleeping in their beds, and in another mother was cooking at the stove which had a chimney that went through the roof where it emitted gorgeous spirals of smoke.

Children give pictorial expression to things they have experienced and thus know best. One child drew the new streamlined school bus, but he drew it with an old Ford engine. When it came to the detail of the engine, his most intimate experience was with his own family car so that was what he depicted.

Another picture which interested us was entitled, "Things I Like to Eat". It was made by a child living on the plains where water is very scarce and one of the most prized possessions of any home is the apple tree that must be faithfully watered if it is to survive. The picture shows an apple, bananas, and slices of watermelon laid out in a straight line; beside the apple grows the apple tree, straight and strong, but there is no effort to indicate vines, or store, or anything else connected with the other fruit. Of course, the picture also shows a boy looking at the "Things I Like to Eat."

The pictures that we have chosen to present here were made by children in their first year at school, thus the children average in age between five and one half and six and one half years. None of the schools cooperating with the Curriculum Laboratory employed an art teacher or director. These examples of graphic expression grew out of general school experiences.

We had hoped that the newer programs in our schools would give each child an opportunity to utilize many media of expression to the end that each might find the medium most suited to his own talents

and purposes. We have become convinced that the young child finds pleasure and satisfaction in drawing. We have watched him at work and agree with Eng that his drawing is just another language and is acquired in much the same fashion as his speech. Out of his scribblings there emerges a form or line that so reminds him of an object that he says, "This is a man", or "This is a house." Subsequently, he repeats the symbol making improvement, perhaps, but continuing with its basic form.

The child who made the first figure we mentioned, made all his figures in the same way. Eng reported that her niece favored a cape-like figure and persisted in its use over a period of time. Such immature figures as our "swish man" and Eng's "cape" figure are often outgrown before children enter school; however, those children without former experience with pencil or crayons pass through the scribbling and purely manipulative stage during the first few weeks of school.

The collection of drawings of human figures was taken from two booklets, "Making a Garden" and "Going Visiting", and from the movie strip, "Our Walk". We were intrigued with the various methods the children employed to attach the arms to the body. Likewise, the hands showed distinct characteristics. It is not difficult to pick out the two figures planting seeds. Note, also, the three upper left hand figures. They were standing knocking at the door as the body shows but the full front view of the face is drawn. Profile drawing is usually associated with the work of children somewhat older.

In the drawings of the farm animals we could not help but be impressed with the abandonment and spontaneity apparent in them. Just a few lines were sufficient (horse) and yet no doubt of the result could possibly exist. Every line was significant and necessary to the total im-



pression. We found no erasures or any other evidence of redrawing or hesitation. Another observer has felt the same quality in the work of young children.

They need no technique. They have much to express pictorially and, above all, they have perfect unself-consciousness, since no adult standards have as yet interfered with their ideas. "See my boat," they say of a few straggling lines, feeling perfect satisfaction. And, indeed, artistically, their work is interesting because of its vigorous freedom, its really unconscious originaive quality. This unself-conscious work seems to continue for several years, through the first few grades of school.²

The deer head shows nice detail while the feet appear to indicate that the child remembered that there was something special about them so he built them up a bit. The detail in the drawing of the deer head may be explained by the fact that mounted heads are familiar sights to all children in this part of the country.

The mother and baby pigs and mother hen and baby chickens are made exactly the same except for size. This would actually be true of the pigs, but not of the chickens; however, the child can solve his problem *best* by just making "mother" bigger. Too, he may be transferring from his own relationship and not have analyzed the difference between hen and chicks except in size.

The same graphic animal symbols occurred again and again in a given child's drawings. This is further proof that the young child can, and when given an opportunity, does build a graphic language. His store of impressions becomes more meaningful when allowed this additional channel of expression. How necessary it is to provide him with the opportunity! Horn states:

It is not necessary to tell children what to draw and how to draw it. It is best to take our departure from the innate desire of the

child to express himself graphically and to provide him with equipment and opportunity for such expression. Under these conditions nearly all children will make efforts to give general pictorial expression to things that interest them.³

Another problem which we noted the children solved ingeniously was that of perspective. The barn with the cows and the chickens in the pen are fine examples. In the drawing of the barn we have also a typical illustration of transparency. The large barn doors and the hayloft door are closed but the contents of the barn are discernible. The silo ladder may have been placed as it is to solve the problem of perspective or to emphasize it as the most important part of the silo. Note how the cows are drawn exactly alike with less attention to detail as each one is repeated.

The barn which the calf is entering was included as an illustration of an older first grade child's drawing. It was made by an eight-year-old who came in from one of the northern mountain communities and had never been in school before. She had accurately distinguished between the way the boards are used for the different parts of the barn and even shingled the roof.

A rich experience for us was provided by the large number of drawings the children had made to depict the coming of spring. They had drawn trees, flowers, birds, insects, and people at work in gardens and yards, all guarded by resplendent suns. All of the children identified their trees with either birds or apples or both. The most striking feature we noted was the manner in which the trees were reduced to pattern. Here was greater abstract symbolism than heretofore. Once again we saw the children's ingenuity exercised in the way they placed the bird on a branch and the apples in the tree.

Throughout this paper attention has been directed toward the numerous ways

² Hartman, Gertrude, and Shumaker, Ann. *Creative Expression*. Milwaukee: E. M. Hale and Company, 1939, pp. 51-52.

³ Horn, John Louis. *The Education of Your Child*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1939, p. 100.



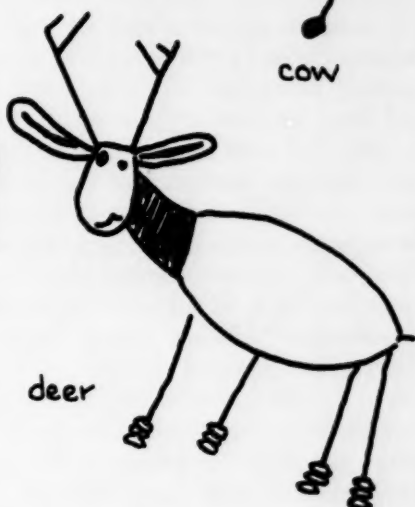
horse



cow



horse



deer



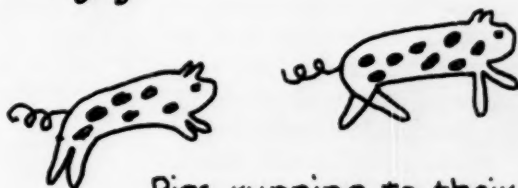
pig



cow



mother pig
and baby pig



Pigs running to their house

children solve their problems of graphic expression. Our purpose has been to interest all teachers in drawings executed by children. It is appropriate, therefore, to close with a presentation of compositions produced by children the last of the year.

It happened on the last visit of the Curriculum Laboratory Director to one of the schools. It was her privilege always to hear of the exciting things that had occurred since her last visit. One first grade had quite a story to tell of a visit by one of the fathers. He had come to see how Bruce was getting along but before he knew it, he had been adopted by the whole first grade who vied with one another to initiate him into the mysteries of the room. Someone showed him the turtle; another one brought the newly completed clothing booklets; still another showed the stove the class had built as an addition to the playhouse; then Mother Goose rhymes were recited and stories played.

When the father took his leave, he thanked the group for their hospitality and expressed the desire to return it in some fashion. Imagine their surprise and delight when a week later the groceryman father drove up in front of their playground with a banana and an orange for each child. The recital of the event to the director showed that the enthusiasm of the class was still high, so she casually suggested that she would like a picture to remember the kindness of the father and the pleasure he had brought them.

To the surprise of all of us, sometime during the day every child had produced a picture *to tell the story*. The three reproduced here were chosen because they are such different pictorial representations of the same experience. Each child had interpreted the experience in his own way. His interpretation as expressed graphically may also be considered a reflection of his level of maturity. Florence Goodenough has analyzed children's drawings

of figures from this standpoint. Her conclusions are interesting to any one associated with young children.

Here we have a group of children who had been together throughout the year and shared in the same school experiences. The external motivation for the drawings was precisely the same. What is the result? Apparently no element in the landscape is omitted in the top picture. The precise little girl who drew the picture has expressed her dominant trait. Did not the artist of the second picture interpret the experience entirely personally? It may be of interest to know that the children actually sat outdoors under a tree to eat the fruit. The artist of the bottom picture wants us to know that there was sufficient fruit for every child. Perhaps, after all, that isn't his message. Maybe it is just a literal interpretation of what took place. Who can tell? However, speculation as to what inner motive prompted the particular expression is fascinating to those of us who engage in it and always we come out feeling closer to the child and with a profound respect for his potentialities and for him as a very special personality.

Suggested Readings

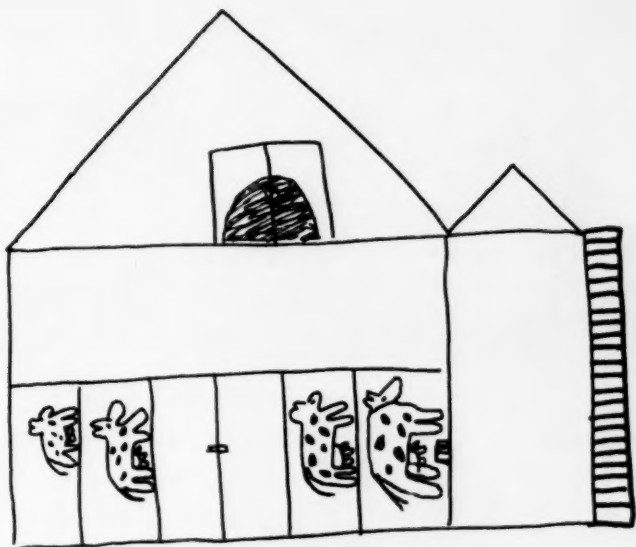
Anastasi, Anne, and Foley, John. "An Analysis of Spontaneous Drawings by Children in Different Cultures". *Journal of Applied Psychology* (December, 1936), 20: 689-726.

As its title indicates, it brings together a large number of systematic studies into the nature of children's drawings. A basic reference since many of the original studies are not available in translation.

Eng, Helga. *The Psychology of Children's Drawings*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Truber and Co., Ltd., 1931. Pp. viii-223.

The author gives an intimate and interpretative study of the spontaneous drawings made by her niece from the age of two to eight. Goodenough, Florence. "Children's Drawings". *Handbook of Child Psychology*. 1st ed., Carl Murchison, Editor. Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark University Press, 1931.

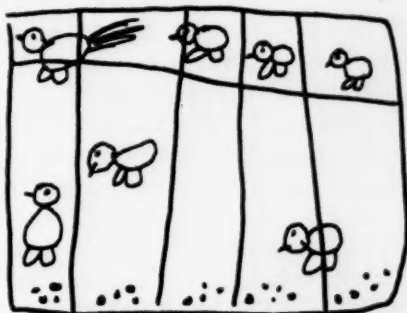
An excellent discussion, another "must" for



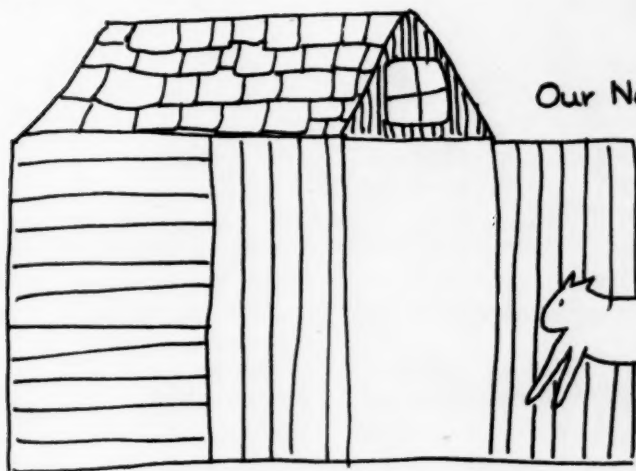
Cows in a Barn



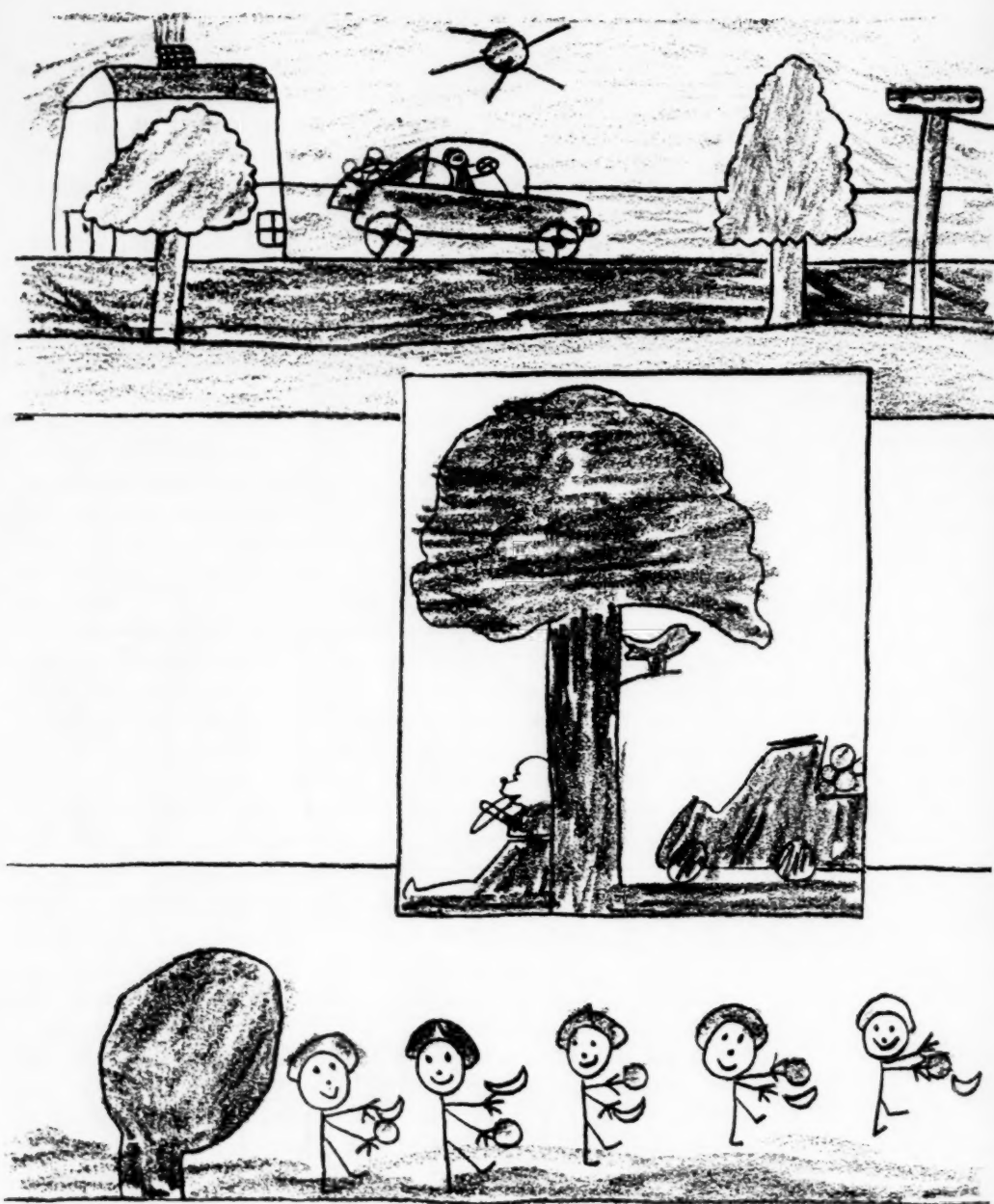
Hen and
Chickens



Chickens in a Pen



Our New Calf



teachers seeking to appreciate and interpret children's drawings.

Muesse, Katherine F. "Helping Teachers to Evaluate the Efforts of Individual Children".

Baltimore Bulletin of Education (January and February, 1939, 16: 124-127.

The entire issue is devoted to art in the elementary school.

So This Is Opera!

In learning more about composing, costuming, staging, dancing, singing and acting these eight-year-olds, incidentally, learned satisfactory ways of working together. The spirit and fun which accompanied the making of their opera are delightfully evident in this description by Miss Bowden, teacher of music at the Ethical Culture School in New York.

THIRD GRADE—seven- and eight-year-olds—the age of thrills. But this year some of the thrills were reserved for the music teacher.

She was at her desk one morning in April when two boys came in, their eyes shining with enthusiasm. Robert spoke first. "I have written a story for an opera!"—showing three pages of bold blue writing on yellow paper.

Donald continued, "And I have composed some music for it. Here's a march I made up," producing a scrap of music paper with real notes on it.

Then both together: "We think our class could give it for an assembly, if you would help us."

"Yes, indeed," came the voice of the music teacher who was checking an impulse to sink into the waste basket. "Let's hear the story."

"A prince and princess named Alessandro and Maria were captured and put into a Norwegian prison. They had a very harsh jail keeper, but one day he fell asleep, and Alessandro got out and rescued Maria and the other prisoners. The jail keeper told King Gustave, and he raised a big army and ran after them. But they went so fast that King Gustave's soldiers

were led right into the middle of Italy, and Maria and Alessandro got home safely, and their own king and queen were very glad to see them. We aren't sure whether to have a wedding or not. If I was the prince and Jane was Maria, it would be all right, because she is the right size; but if Constance was Maria, she is so tall—"

"But I am tall, too," urged Donald, "and if I was Alessandro, Constance could be the princess, and you could be the announcer, and Jane could be a lady-in-waiting and dance—"

"I should like to hear Donald's march," put in the music teacher before the storm broke.

It was in four-four rhythm and it really made sense. It had a first theme and a middle part four measures long; then you repeated the first theme. Donald had written it down himself in beautiful, round notes.

"We certainly could march to this. Would it not be a good ending to have everybody march out in a triumphal procession?"

They decided that a dance and a procession would not be nearly so hard as a wedding. "Now let's see how many scenes we would need."

Robert pounced on this idea and started right in. At first he made four or five which were afterward reduced to three.

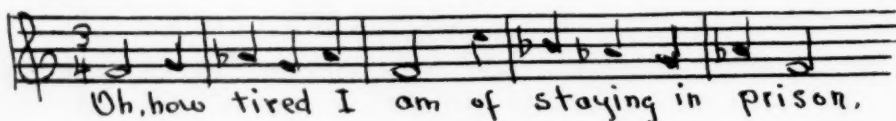
"And now," said Robert, "I will write out the words and then somebody in the class can think of the right tunes."

We Make the Tunes

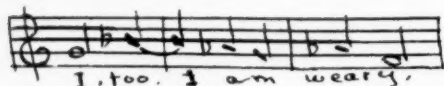
Over night was long enough for this and when Miss Whitefield, the class teacher, had made some beautiful type-written

copies, we set to work making the music.

Many children tried composing Maria's part which began the first scene; but it seemed as if Connie's tune was the saddest, and just right.



sang Constance;



chanted Donald in a strange, veiled voice.

Then somebody suggested that the other prisoners might chime in. Robert immediately supplied the words, and after much sighing and wailing we finally decided on the "right tune." We repeated it softly and kept right on humming, so of course the harsh jailer fell asleep and dropped his keys; but I am getting ahead of the story. For meantime James had foolishly looked at a map of Europe and was shocked to find what a long way Norway was from Italy. "They could never walk all that distance," he objected.

"I think we shall just have to call it a Spanish prison," sighed Donald. Somehow King Gustave's name never did get changed, but anyway it all happened ever so long ago. "It might not have happened at all," said James.

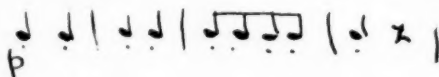
Another serious difficulty came up. Donald and Robert told the music teacher at a private conference that they just could not find parts for all the class; there were at least five people left over.

"Maybe we could make up a little band," the music teacher suggested. "Joseph and Lottie play the drum very well, and I think Michael can be trusted with the cymbals. We might use a tambourine for the dance."

"And Peter can play bugle calls on the bells, behind the scenes," added Robert.

Great relief and rejoicing. When the "harsh king" Gustave summoned his army the assembly call was played on the bells.

Then the drums began to beat, and when everybody sang, "We must catch them. We must catch them. Get a band of soldiers", the cymbals came in on the strong beats, and sometimes strengthened the weak ones. It all sounded very dramatic. We grew softer after two or three repeats, until finally only one drum was left tapping in the distance



The next addition was even nicer. Since the last scene was in Italy, the courtiers and ladies thought it would be appropriate to sing "Santa Lucia" to cheer the king and queen who were naturally feeling anxious about Maria and Alessandro. This was a very popular song for Miss Bertini, our teacher's assistant, had taught us the original words and our Italian accent was simply going to waste. The band could sing it, too, and the prisoners who had turned into courtiers. Constance said she just had to sing it; nobody could tell where all the sounds came from, anyway. We would start singing it again, and then Dick, the king of Italy, could see Maria and Alessandro in the distance, and go right on with the real opera.

The dance took up a great deal of time, for though it started with a simple running step it kept getting more and more elaborate, until finally the gym teacher helped us select what Jane and the two Betties had worked out. The patient ac-

companionist had found a real tarantella which had an introduction in march rhythm, so the band had a fine time while the dancers were taking their places.

Costumes began to come in, some brought by the children, and some left over from a school play. There was a sword for King Gustave, and a suit of mail for the jail keeper (which unfortunately completely covered Archer's handsome red hair). The school carpenter found a sinister looking prison gate, and with a few screens and drapes we were ready to go into rehearsal.

We Go Into Rehearsal

Those three rehearsals! At first the announcers could not be heard at all; the jail keeper stayed asleep too long; the band whanged too soon and too loudly; the dance did not come out even with the music. The teachers despaired and drooped; the children enjoyed everything to the full.

Next day so many prisoners came down with mumps that there were not enough left to escape or sing.

"Could you spare Mary from the band to help with the chorus?" asked the class teacher. Annette, who had been chafing under a tambourine, saw her opportunity. "I could easily play both a drum and a tambourine; oh, please let me!"

Mary joyfully skipped back of the piano and took her place beside the heroine. "Welcome to prison," said Constance.

Joseph and Murray were the next victims, which reduced the band to three. Great rejoicing. "Now we can each have two instruments!"

Much practising during recitatives until the music teacher collected all the drumsticks and stacked them on top of the piano. But during "Santa Lucia," when everything was calm, Annette climbed up like a mouse and retrieved them. She also wangled a cymbal from Michael, and balanced it like a gong on top of her drum.

At last the music teacher made Lottie custodian of the drum-sticks, and she promptly sat upon them.

Connie had a suggestion. She was very solemn about it.

"I think it looks *very* bad for Peter to stick out and show when he plays the bugle-bells behind the scenes."

Said Peter, "I did not mean to stick out and show; it was because I did not get the bells soon enough, so I did not have time to get clear back. If Miss Bertini would hand me the bells quicker I would not stick out and show; I certainly don't want to stick out."

The music teacher had an inspiration. "Well, I think that you are all getting so quiet and self-controlled back there that we can leave the bells on a chair behind the screen instead of on the piano." It worked; Peter did not stick out and show.

The last rehearsal. The announcers were perfect; there are two of them now; Janet, who never forgets and whose voice is so clear; and Robert, who really began it all. Janet told how the opera got started and outlined the story. She did not give any names but smiled sweetly at Robert who continued, describing the scenes. The jail keeper still improvised and added to his part but he always arrived back on the F minor chord at the ends of the phrases, so the music teacher just held it a little longer. The figures of the dance were very clear by this time, having been polished off in the classroom, four at a time.

We Present Our Opera

The day itself! The class teacher had stayed in school until six o'clock the day before to press the costumes, and they did look beautiful. There was even an extra cape of blue silk for Betty, a lady-in-waiting, to throw over Maria's plain prison clothes in the last scene. Everything and everybody was ready, but where could Samuel be who sang the part of King Gus-

tave so dramatically? Could there be more mumps in the world? We tried several other boys for the part, but either they were not the right size for the costume, or their voices did not quite carry alone. At last the music teacher saw Michael working over his arithmetic in a corner.

"Will you try the king's part, Michael? You could still get back in time to play the cymbals for the march," she added.

Michael looked up cheerfully.

"Sure," he said, "now what's that line after I scold the jail keeper?"

The missing line was intoned by the whole class.

Michael tried the costume and sword. "O.K.," he decided.

The band, now sadly shrunk in numbers, was in its place; the announcers were sitting on the edges of their chairs. The classes were coming into the big basement assembly room. There were parents, too, a few outside visitors, the principal, and some extra teachers who were interested in opera. The music teacher was playing, "Hark, the Tiny Cowslip Bell" in A major as the second graders came in, when she heard a stage whisper in her off ear. It was Michael, "Now what is that line again?" For once she was thankful that no one ever listens when assembling. Without pausing she interpolated

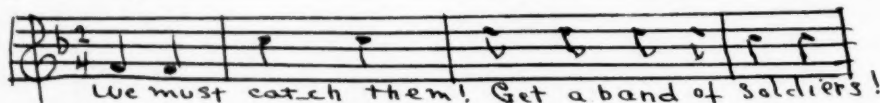
audience the music teacher could tell that the "opera" was getting across. There was spontaneous applause for the escape, for the band, for the dance and when Donald's march began we felt sure it had been a success. It took all of twenty minutes; not the longest opera on record, surely, but one can do a lot in twenty minutes at a primary assembly.

We Do It Again

As the classes were filing out, Miss O'Donovan of the Normal School Department hurried forward, her bright black eyes twinkling, "Could you possibly repeat it for my freshmen? They were not free at eleven, but they could come down at eleven forty-five."

The class teacher thought the children could stand it, and put it up to them. They were delighted and began to caper, even Donald took a passing whack at the drum. She suggested they should sit down quietly and rest for ten minutes.

The music teacher began to play softly the "Blue Danube Waltz;" chortles of approval came from the children. We sang it through twice, with squeaks and without. They were all crowded around the piano now; but Brahms' "Lullaby" and the "Suwanee River" have never failed to keep this class calm, and they did not fail



"Okey-doke," whispered Michael, and trotted off to be ready for his scene.

The doors were closing; soft arpeggios in F minor sounded from the piano; the announcers came forward, and Janet's voice piped up: "Some of the boys in our class . . ." and so on.

The soloists and chorus were dignified and natural; Michael sang the king's part with great authority; anyone would think he had rehearsed it. From the faces of the

now. There was still "Auld Lang Syne" to spare when we were told the second audience was arriving.

Back of the scenes the actors scuttled, and the band and announcers took their places. Perhaps the voices were a bit worn this time, but the action was freer and the ballet immense. The Normal girls gave a rousing hand at the end and called, "Cast! Cast!" This was a newer experience than opera, and the children were quite at a

loss. The music teacher got the band up, and the class teacher gently shooed the rest out on the stage again. Everybody was wreathed in smiles.

Perhaps the Gentle Reader who does not teach in a progressive school may think that the Third Grade was now completely tired out. No, they were only pleasantly relaxed and ready to go quietly back to their room—all but Annette who seized two fat drums in her arms and, crowding the cymbals against her stomach said, "I can manage these all right; I'll carry them up to the music room." She was off at a trot before the music teacher could either

thank her or remonstrate. And she made it.

The next day some of the other classes sent congratulations. One group thought that Miss Whitefield's class had certainly shown "cooperation." So the music teacher in giving these messages began to write it on the board.

"Confidence," guessed Michael. "Concentration," suggested James. Janet finally read it.

Suddenly Donald's face lighted up. He went quickly to the blackboard, and taking a piece of chalk drew a perfect oval around the middle letters—co (opera) tion. "That's what came out of it," said Donald.

By JEAN B. TOMPKINS and C. NEWTON STOKES

Eight-Year-Olds

USE ARITHMETIC

How often do young children use arithmetic? What kinds of number experiences do they have? How can we determine the mathematical concepts children are developing? What social uses do they make of arithmetic? Mrs. Tompkins and Mr. Stokes of the Oak Lane Country Day School, Philadelphia, answer these questions in the study reported here.

THE ELEMENTARY division of Oak Lane Country Day School is committed to a program where the work of each group consists of activities based on children's interests and needs. These activities are arranged to provide, as far as can be determined, for the continuous growth of the child. They are composed of situations which a child can experience and understand and serve as bases for specific teaching of such tools as arithmetic, reading, spelling, written expression.

At Oak Lane the aim is to present mathematics so that it will become for the child a method of thinking.¹ We teach through the concrete, believing that this is the way to make quantitative aspects of the environment understandable.

In 1937-38 the eight-year-old-group was made up of thirteen children who were carrying out an interest in Philadelphia which was begun the previous year. They studied how Philadelphia came to be, what the Leni-Lenapes were like, who the early settlers were and how they lived, and what the city looked like to them. During a six-weeks period when the group was studying "How the People of Philadelphia Get Their Food", the staff was particularly interested in obtaining data on the amount of mathematical material presented and in determining as far as possible the value of the "meaningful"

¹ *Psychological Considerations in the Learning and Teaching of Arithmetic*. By W. A. Brownell. Tenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics.

teaching of mathematics. Information for this study was obtained through stenographic notes made of every quantitative situation met by the children and every mathematical term used, and through achievement tests administered periodically.

Before proceeding with a description of the work done during the period reported, it may be desirable to state the mathematical background of the children of the group. In the kindergarten the major activities were centered around home and school environment and interests included boats, trains, and airplanes. Incidental experience in mathematics was gained through counting dishes, etc., in setting the table for lunch; measuring with a yardstick for puppet stage, garages, rivers; having their attention called to the natural rhythms in seasons, day and night; using the forms of circle, line, square and oblong in modeling, paper cutting and games, and observing these shapes in nature; putting things together and taking them apart.

When the group was six years old they were interested in farm life, preparation for winter, building a house, observing the weather, making a garden, raising chickens, etc. Some of the mathematical situations were: measuring with a ruler for furnishings in the house and for flower beds in the garden; reading a thermometer; buying pencils and materials for house; counting attendance, bulbs, furniture, animals, etc.; reading a calendar; telling time.

The numbers used were generally less than 10 although some of the children could count to 100.

When seven years old the group built an aquarium; noticed how winter differs from summer; talked about the life of the Eskimo, desert people, Mexicans, and how we live in Philadelphia. They had mathematical experiences of the following types: measuring in inches, using money, multiplying as a short way to adding, finding out what fractions look like when written

in numbers, dividing a large group into small groups.

Mathematics arose incidentally from the activities, and direct teaching and drill were given when needed. This report, based upon work during the six-week period, includes consideration of numbers used in the group, computation done in the group, words used which denoted mathematical concepts and social uses of mathematics.

Numbers Used in the Group

The stenographic report of the six-week period, which included all the numbers written or spoken in the group during the school day, show that the numbers one to ten were used most often, from 212 to 502 times; that numbers above 25 were used only once or twice, except 25, 30, and 40. Three-digit numbers were used nine times, four of those being 100, and two 200. Four-digit numbers were used seven times. *Two million* was used three times. These large numbers were usually house numbers, dates, or approximations as, "about a million people."

Ordinal numbers were used less often, *first*, *second* and *third* being the most frequent. *First* was used 15 times. Higher ordinals designated the days of the month, the year, or the name of an anniversary.

The fractions $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, and $\frac{1}{3}$ were used more frequently than any cardinal number above 20, or any ordinal number above *first*.

The most frequently used denominate numbers were 1c, 5c, 10c, the first two being used almost three times as often as 10c. Three feet, five minutes, and one dozen were the most frequently mentioned quantities; nine o'clock and half-past eleven the time most frequently referred to. *Twos*, *threes*, *fours*, and *tens* were the most often used groupings.

In the six weeks cardinal numbers were used 4433 times; ordinals, 73 times; fractions, 110 times; numbers denoting money,

209 times. Coins were mentioned 25 times; numbers denoting distance, 19 times; numbers denoting degrees, 7 times; time, 25 times; quantity, 13 times. Numbers were used in connection with telling time 21 times, and groupings of number, such as ones, twos, 92 times, a total of 5027 situations in which children were conscious of number, an average of 167 times a day.

Computation Done in the Group

Data showing computation done orally or in writing by the group (not by individuals apart from the group) reveal that 116 different situations called for addition, 56 for subtraction, 30 for multiplication, and 21 for division. During this time the class was working systematically on numbers 12 through 17.

Words Used Which Denoted Mathematical Concepts

105 words expressing different mathematical ideas were used by the children, 167 times. The words indicated mathematical processes, geometric forms, size, shape, position and relationships.

Social Uses Made of Mathematics

The following list of experiences in school, or reported from out of school activities, indicate 35 different social uses the children made of arithmetic:

Reading dates; writing dates; reading a calendar; telling time from the clock; reading time written in figures; writing time; referring to time.

Reading thermometers; keeping an account book; recording attendance; using an index; playing checkers and parcheesi; measuring with ruler; measuring with yardstick.

Reading a speedometer; weighing selves and other articles; counting or clapping the beats in music or rhythms class; locating and reading telephone numbers; using a telephone; reading and understanding the rhythm in which music is written.

Estimating results; finding the number of examples done correctly; dividing food at a party or picnic; locating one town by miles distant from another; measuring and recording a person's height; purchasing at the store, or from individuals; making change; comparing street car and bus fares; learning how half cents are cared for in business.

Relating facts about allowance, birthday gifts, number of stamps in collection, value of stamps in collection, number of pages in a book, grade placement in school, amount of time one has worked, and amounts of time in weeks and months.

Reading a gasoline gauge; finding houses by street number; locating streets named by numbers and figuring blocks between numbers; counting amount of work done such as boards sawed and paint brushes washed; enlarging pictures in approximate proportion.

These data show the great number of times numbers were used in the group. They point to the fact that children use numbers with which they are familiar and seldom use those with which they have had little experience in their daily lives.

This investigation we feel shows that in the earlier years of a child's school experience there is a surprisingly large number of situations which provide arithmetical concepts and give opportunity to develop skills.

Several articles have been published recently describing mathematics in an activities program. Among them are: "Opportunities for the Use of Arithmetic in the Activities Program", by Paul R. Hanna, *Tenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics*; "Learning of Decimals in an Arithmetic Activities Program", by H. L. Harap and C. Mapes, *Journal of Educational Research*, May 1936; "Experimenting with Real Situations in Third Grade Arithmetic", by Harap and Barret, *Educational Method*, January 1937; "Numbers in a Second Grade Study of Indians", by Edwina Deans, *Childhood Education*, January 1938.

The Present Status of the Kindergarten

• THE A.C.E. HAS just reason to be proud of the foresight which brought forth last November an up-to-the-minute survey of the present status of the kindergarten in the United States. The practicalness of this foresight is shown in the question and answer given below—the question was asked by a school superintendent and the answer was given through the A.C.E. information service, based upon the results of the survey.

Question: Our board has asked me to investigate the kindergarten situation with the idea of abolishing them as relatively useless. I am asked to find out the attitude of neighboring school men as reflected by what other school systems are doing and the opinion of experts on the value of kindergartens, if any. Any help you can give me will be appreciated.

Reply: You will be interested in the trends indicated in a recent questionnaire survey, "Friederich Froebel Started Something," covering the school year 1939-40. 1473 questionnaires were sent to school superintendents in every city and town of 2500 people, and more, in each of twelve states. Together these states comprise 41% of the total population. Substantially the number of kindergartens remains the same in 1939-40 as in 1938-39. The slight difference is in favor of opening new kindergartens: 67 new ones opened and 40 closed or consolidated.

That kindergartens are found in many public school systems is shown by the fact that all but two of the 102 communities which reported from California had kindergartens, all but three of the 62 reporting from Iowa, and all but two of those reporting from Nebraska. All of the 82 reporting from Michigan and the 66 reporting from Wisconsin have kindergartens in the public school systems. On the questionnaires quite a number of superintendents added, "Kindergarten is an integral part of the system," "All five-year-olds are in kindergarten," or "The decrease in apportionment affected all the departments of the school alike."

The fact that 44% of the communities which reported no public school kindergartens volunteered the information that some of the children attended private kindergarten, WPA play groups or nursery schools, college or university kindergartens, or P.T.A. supported kindergartens indicates that parents feel the need of education for preschool children. Several communities reported private schools conducted in school buildings, the school board supplying

Across the

the room and equipment. The superintendent of schools in DuBois, Pennsylvania, reported a WPA play school in the public school building adding, "We hope this is a step toward a regular kindergarten."

Five communities reported they plan to open public kindergartens next year; another that kindergartens were included in the new building program. These returns seem to indicate that the superintendents, school boards, and parents in the majority of the communities believe in education for five-year-old children and are willing to pay for it; that they are thinking of kindergarten as the beginning year of school life, and of kindergarten experience as of value to the children, the school, and the community.

Radio Listening

• WE ARE INDEBTED to Herbert Hucks, Jr., director of radio education in Greensboro, North Carolina, public schools, for this account of a recent study of the listening habits of more than 3100 high and junior high school children, both colored and white. Members of the research committee who worked with Mr. Hucks in making the study were Cathleen Capps, Eula Tuttle, and Eunice Kneece, general chairman of the radio council.

The survey showed that 94% of the white children and 89% of the colored had radios in their homes, that the highest percent of the white children spent two hours a day listening to the radio while the largest number of colored children spent one hour. The most popular times for listening were from seven to eight o'clock in the evening, Saturday morning, and Sunday afternoon.

Music, drama, and comedy were the favorite types of programs. The largest number of children in three of the schools reported they listened for entertainment; in one they used the radio as accompaniment for studying or reading. When asked the type of program considered most worthy of extension, the largest number in two of the schools voted for church programs; two other schools chose music and sports; the colored children, school programs. They would eliminate lectures, hillbillies, street broadcasts, and debates.

Editor's Desk

Favorite singers were Eddy, Crooks, and Crosby; favorite comedians, Cantor, McCarthy, Mad Russian; favorite commentators, Lowell Thomas, Edwin Hill; favorite masters of ceremonies, Don Ameche, Major Bowes; favorite orchestras, Toscanini, Benny Goodman, Paul Whiteman, Ford Symphony (colored); favorite jazz leaders, Benny Goodman, Paul Whiteman, Count Basie; favorite announcers, Bob Poole (local), Bill Hay, Ted Husing.

The largest proportion of the children did not listen to foreign broadcasts. From 25 to 77% have visited a broadcasting station; 54 to 90% would like to. From 19% in one school to 30% in another have taken part in radio programs; 20 to 72% would like to. From 3 to 73% have taken part in radio contests and 35% have won prizes.

The colored children specifically liked, "Wings Over Jordan" and Major Bowes. They disliked, "Amos 'n' Andy," "Carolina Jamboree," and "Carolina Hillbillies."

The article, "Radio: Pied Piper or Educator?" by John J. DeBoer in the October issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION will prove stimulating and suggestive to those interested in radio education.

From the Records: An Adventure in Teacher Training

• ALTHOUGH this bulletin of one hundred thirty-eight pages describes teacher education in summer play schools in New York City, it is a stimulating and delightful account that describes what real teacher education should be in any environment. The nature of the play school program and the particular demands it makes upon the teachers is described first. Then follows a section called, "We Meet the Teacher," which gives the qualifications and the process and bases of their selection—the real crux of any effective teacher education. The third section, "We Teach the Teacher," describes sixteen training sessions—orientation, block building, shop, painting and clay, supplementary play materials, dramatization, music and dancing, discipline and behavior, and so on.

Section four is titled, "We See the Teacher in Action," which describes how the teacher's

personal attitudes and background, supplemented by her training, bear upon her work in the group. This, perhaps, is the most important section in the book, for it presents the pragmatic aspects of teacher education. The bulletin closes with a fifth section devoted to the teacher and the social system—the current challenge to new ways and new philosophies of education and the effect of this challenge upon the teacher.

This book in paper covers may be purchased for sixty cents from the Summer Play Schools Association, 1841 Broadway, New York. Clara Lambert, director of teacher education, Summer Play Schools Committee, Child Study Association, is the author, and was assisted by Josette Frank, editorial associate of the Child Study Association.

Questions on Music Teaching

• RECENTLY three questions having to do with the teaching of music came across the editor's desk, and were referred to Alton O'Steen, chairman of the A.C.E. music committee and research associate in English and Music at Ohio State University. Here are the questions and Mr. O'Steen's replies:

Question: Shall we insist on the light quality in singing or shall we allow full voice from young children? *Reply:* As to light quality or full-voiced singing by children, it depends upon the nature of the song. For example, the Brahms "Sandman" should certainly be sung in a very light voice, but the same voice would be inappropriate for "Ole Dan Tucker." It certainly is true that full-throated singing by children is not attractive and if continued too long may give them very bad habits. On the other hand, much of the music material for young children is pitched too high so that many of them have to squeak in order to reach the high notes. That kind of singing is bad, too.

Question: When shall we begin note reading? *Reply:* Perhaps the question should have been stated, "If we should begin, when?" Several of the techniques used for note reading can be begun incidentally in the first or second grade but any deliberate and whole-hearted attack on the note reading problem should be postponed, it seems to me, until the fifth or sixth grade and then, perhaps, done only with a selected group of children.

Question: How much time shall we give to rhythm band work? Is it of any value before the children read notes or have something to

watch? *Reply:* Rhythm band work is great fun for the children and can be an excellent medium for ear training which is obviously of supreme importance in music training. In all rhythm band work the emphasis should be on listening to the piano or phonograph which is used and the tone of the instruments should be light enough to allow the piano or phonograph to be heard distinctly. The children should at all times consider themselves as "interpreting" the piece of music.

Radio Project Going Strong

PICK-UPS, a smart-looking "periodical devoted to development in sound transmission, published by Western Electric Company" contains in its December, 1939, issue an article, "New York's Classroom Teaching by UHF Radio Project Going Strong" by M. M. Beard. The article says something like this: Radio broadcasting is stepping into the classroom. New York City's Board of Education has been allocated a special channel on the ultra-high frequency band, has placed its new station at Brooklyn Technical High School, and is raising money to equip elementary, junior high and senior high schools with short wave receivers and sound systems. This makes it pos-

sible for groups of students to take part in broadcasting programs for the benefit of other school children all over the city, while Tech students have the fun and responsibility of keeping the broadcasting station in condition and providing paraphernalia for whatever sound effects a script may require. The advent of radio opens a new and challenging as well as an inviting avenue in education.

Yes, we agree that "radio opens a new and challenging as well as an inviting avenue in education" but at what expense to another kind of education which to our way of thinking is more important! Apparently the New York City Board of Education has money enough to install short wave receivers and sound systems in 616 elementary, 82 junior, and 50 senior high schools, but not enough money to keep their kindergartens open. (The latest reports, however, say that "assurances were given the school leaders that kindergartens would remain in operation for the coming semester.")

Or is this another case of vested interests with an expensive commodity to sell, with consideration of its educational value of secondary importance? Wherein lie the greatest values—in gadgets or in opportunities?

A. C. E. Convention Notes

THE ENTIRE eleventh floor of the Schroeder Hotel at Milwaukee has been reserved for the studio groups at the A.C.E. convention, April 29-May 3. The very large room which has no partitions and is flooded from all sides with light lends itself excellently to studio use—each group may work separately or may quickly and easily join other groups for some integrated activity. A very flexible plan for the study classes has also been made so that if one group in a study class wishes to work in the studio while other members go on an excursion and carry on a discussion, they may be free to do so. So popular has the studio become that this year for the first time it will be open every day.

Winifred Bain, director of the studio, will call a get-ready conference of all studio workers on the first day of the conven-

tion, open to anyone who wishes to attend.

On the eleventh floor, also, will be three types of exhibits: educational exhibits in connection with the studio work, study class exhibits, and exhibits of work of the A.C.E. national committees.

MILWAUKEE hostesses have planned a number of excursions to places of cultural and industrial interest—art galleries and museums, toy loan center, a china and glassware shop, hosiery mill, shoe factory, handcraft exhibits and housing units. Preliminary programs will be available March first and the April issue of *CHILDHOOD EDUCATION* will carry final program details. We are looking forward to seeing you in Milwaukee the week of April 29-May 3.—*Clara L. Johnson*

Book...

REVIEWS

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

READING AND THE EDUCATIVE PROCESS. By Paul Witty and David Kopel. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1939. Pp. 374. \$2.50.

Refreshingly different is the viewpoint presented in this new book on reading. While it deals primarily with remedial reading, the discussion is broad in its implication. Remedial reading is regarded by these authors "as a step in the development of generally improved teaching programs." Perhaps the most outstanding characteristic of this book is the prime emphasis which the writers place upon the fulfillment of children's interests, purposes, and drives when providing remedial instruction. While some recommendation is made for the use of standardized tests, the use of interest inventories are given more emphasis than standardized tests as diagnostic instruments, and remedial reading in terms of interests and needs is given consideration over and above the use of skill exercises and practice pads.

"Modern Education and Reading" is the title of the first chapter in which the teaching of reading is tied to the general functional concept of modern education. The next chapter entitled, "Interest as a Factor in Learning," points out the desirability of making a careful appraisal of children's interests when planning remedial instruction. "Identifying the Poor Reader" gives practical suggestions for defining the disabled reader; "Remedial Programs in the Elementary School" describes different procedures which have been used for remedial purposes, and outlines segments of a day-by-day schedule used successfully by the authors in remedial instruction. "Remedial Reading in the Secondary School" contains practical suggestions for remedial instruction at this level. "The Prevention of Reading Difficulties" places emphasis where it belongs, namely, on preventative "medicine" rather than on curative "medicine." Chapters on "The Causation and Analysis of Reading Difficulties" and "The Clinical Approach to Reading Difficulty" will be of especial interest to those engaged in remedial reading work; "Trends in Reading Instruction" is a

forward looking chapter which will be of general interest to all teachers.

The Appendix contains practical and usable forms for the making of child study records and interest inventories; valuable information about a variety of reading tests, and an especially helpful section on "Reading Sources and Resources."

The book as a whole is thoroughly reinforced with the results of scientific investigation. It is written in a simple, easy style, and unlike many treatises of its kind, it is entirely practicable for use by the classroom teacher. There is need for such a book at this time; its message should prove interesting, stimulating and helpful to all who are engaged in the teaching or study of reading.—Nila Banton Smith, University of Southern California.

THE SECRET OF CHILDHOOD. By Maria Montessori. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company, 1939. Pp. 286. \$2.50.

Dr. Montessori draws attention to the changed attitudes toward children which began in the latter part of the nineteenth century. She develops the theme of her book around the grave significance of these attitudes which now make it "necessary for us to work for two distinct humanities, that of the child and that of the adult. And we approach a civilization which must prepare two social environments, two distinct worlds—the adult's and the child's." (p. vi.)

That the task of so organizing a world appropriate for the social development of both adult and child is not one that can be accomplished by merely re-arranging external conditions is made clear in Dr. Montessori's challenging statement: "The child is not a strange being whom the adult can consider only from the outside with objective judgment. He is the most important part of the life of the adult, for he is the beginning of the adult's very existence. He, in turn, becomes the adult." (p. vi.)

The author organizes her ideas under three divisions as she deals with the social question facing us today—"the struggle to establish the

rights of the child in the world"—(p. 272) "The Child as the Spiritual Embryo," "The New Education," and "The Child and Society."

As in her earlier writings, the many sided approach Dr. Montessori makes in presenting her material is characteristic of this book—she is the physician, the social worker, the educator, the mystic. The reader must be prepared to make rapid adjustments, now sensing a telling analogy between man and nature, now gaining a new appreciation of some vital scientific fact of growth and development, now deeply moved by the tragedies of the misunderstood young child in an irresponsible world, and now in danger of being lost and confused by the mystic wrappings of the ideas dealing with the psychological development of the child.

In a world geared only to struggle and desire for material gain, where youth comes of age but to fight, one turns to such a book feeling its sharp contrast to the world it is attempting to reach. Few may perhaps accept its idealistic philosophy but many will agree that the development of spiritual man has never been realized because human development in its earliest periods has found no appropriate conditions to minister to its growth potentialities.—E. Mae Raymond.

THOREAU, REPORTER OF THE UNIVERSE. *A selection of his writings about nature, for all readers from eight years old to eighty. Selected and arranged by Bertha Stevens. New York: The John Day Company, 1939. Pp. 229. \$2.50.*

One opens this book to find as frontispiece a reproduction of the lovely painting by George Inness, Jr., entitled, "The Lord Is In His Holy Temple." Presently one comes upon Miss Stevens' first selection from the writings of Thoreau, dated March 2, 1852. "The bluebird comes, and with his warble drills the ice, and sets free the rivers and ponds and frozen ground. As the sand flows down the slopes . . . , so this little rill of melody flows . . . down the concave of the sky." Thus is the reader introduced to the chapter, "Musical News."

Other intriguing chapter headings indicate the author's method of organizing the selections; for example, "The Clock of the Seasons;" "News of Animals;" "Driving Mist and Drifting Cloud;" "Sun, Stars, and Magical Moon;" "Forces Which Make and Unmake the World;" "Fairy News." The material within

each chapter is arranged by seasons beginning with March in nearly every case and ending with February. Thus one may readily find an observation or comment by Thoreau which will supplement, extend or enhance his interest and experience, or that of the children he is guiding, at any particular time of the year.

Miss Stevens herself has used much of the material here embodied with great success in her work with children and hopes that "the selection will send many readers to the complete works of Thoreau and to the recent biography by Dr. Henry Seidel Canby."

Among the illustrations are several other reproductions of paintings by Inness and some quite lovely wood engravings. Why not find time during the Easter season to examine this rare book?—A. T.

WHAT SHALL THE CHILDREN READ?

By Laura E. Richards. Illustrated by C. B. Falls. New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1939. Pp. 62. \$1.00.

In the four chapters of this small volume, Mrs. Richards has succeeded in giving a wealth of sound advice concerning the literature *not to be missed* by children from the earliest years to adolescence. Perhaps the publishers are not claiming too much when they write, "Within the brief compass of her pages, there is more of the pure joy of reading and sounder guidance for parents, teachers, and librarians on the choice of books for child readers than is to be found in any number of academic treatises on the subject."

Be that as it may, this reviewer believes that this latest book by Mrs. Richards, now in her eighty-eighth year, is one not to be missed by the adult who is in any way responsible for the selection of children's reading. Such a person will enjoy and profit by the author's sympathetic, discriminating, humorous, enthusiastic and altogether delightful treatment of her subject. Mr. Falls' illustrations add much to the charm of the book.—A. T.

HOW WE GET OUR FOOD. *By Ethel K. Howard. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1939. Pp. 111. \$1.25.*

Here is a strictly informational book which, by means of numerous large photographs and clear description, explains all that is involved in the production of such essential foods as milk, meat, bread, fruit, vegetables and poultry.

Books...

FOR CHILDREN

Editor, MAY HILL ARBUTHNOT

MILLET TILLED THE SOIL. By Sybil Deucher and Opal Wheeler. Illustrated by Dorothy Bayley. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1939. Pp. 96. \$2.50.

Miss Deucher and Miss Wheeler have given us the second biography in the artist series, which they began so delightfully last year with *Giotto*. There is amazing skill in the way these authors, in less than a hundred pages, manage to tell the important facts about their hero's life, give you the essence of his work and peculiar greatness, and paint a vivid picture of the country and times.

Millet makes a particularly appealing hero and will be a favorite with the children and teachers who know so well the ten famous Millet pictures reproduced in this book. The story of his life is beautifully illustrated by Miss Bayley. Children as young as seven and as old as twelve enjoy these biographies.

NANCY GOES PLACES. By Marjorie Peters. New York: Macmillan Company, 1939. Unpaged. \$1.50.

Children five to seven will like these stories of a very little girl with a very big imagination. Nancy goes to the zoo and pretends she is in a jungle. She carries on a pretend tour in a trailer that is almost as good as reality. Her games of "Let's Pretend" make amusing reading and the pictures with their humorous details enliven the text.

THE LITTLE MERMAID. By Hans Christian Andersen. Illustrations by Dorothy P. Lathrop. New York: Macmillan Company, 1939. Unpaged. \$2.50.

Of all Dorothy Lathrop's beautiful books this is the loveliest, and it is, indeed, one of the most exquisite books I have ever seen. Andersen's story of *The Little Mermaid* is full of haunting beauty and sadness. Now Dorothy Lathrop completes this magic of the sea with her perfect illustrations.

The little mermaid picks sea anemones in her floating sea garden of rainbow colors. She

watches reflections of earthly fireworks making an undersea borealis of unearthly beauty. She finds her prince; she leaves the wise, beautiful denizens of the sea for the precarious world of mortals. Every page of exquisite line drawings or translucent colors illumines this matchless story.

Children and adults should treat themselves now and then to the contemplation of sheer beauty. Here it is, in Andersen's story and Dorothy Lathrop's unforgettable illustrations.

HANNAH MARIE. By Richard Bennett. New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1939. Pp. 70. \$1.50.

Paddy, Joe, and Hannah Marie sat with faces "as long as a wet week." They wanted to buy suitable presents for Great Grandma Bessie's one hundredth birthday. That required much thinking and some money. The boys had the money; Hannah Marie had only thoughts. How she finally plucked flowers from a fairy "fort" and brought misfortune on them all, might have made a sad, sad tale. But that tiny donkey, with eyes too bright and ears too long, must have understood at last, how unusual a one hundredth birthday is; for he winked at Hannah Marie! Yes he did, so help me! After that everything went well and the birthday celebration was grand entirely! For children six to nine and a good story it is.

PONY FOR SALE. By Ann Stafford. Illustrated by Bobri. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1939. Pp. 271. \$2.00.

It is good for American children to know the English children of Arthur Ransome and Ann Stafford. These English children are refreshingly self-reliant. Mr. Ransome's children sail their own boats. Miss Stafford's children are all concerned with horses and incidentally are always involved in exciting adventures. *Five Proud Riders* solved a mystery. These children buy the "pony for sale" after a summer of strenuous effort and high finance in its behalf. For children ten to twelve.

Among...

Editor, HELEN BERTERMANN

THE MAGAZINES

IS YOUR CHILD HARD OF HEARING?

By Harriet A. Heyburn. *Hygeia*, January 1940, 18:32-33.

Miss Heyburn suggests very practical ways for building good mental as well as physical health habits with the deafened child. He must be helped to grow in independence, in participating in normal group activities with normal children, and in developing hobbies, interests and skills through which he may take his place in the world. The physical treatment is not lost sight of in helping the handicapped child adjust to life and in finding happiness.

OUR EDUCATIONAL HERITAGE (THE TRADITION OF TASTE AND EXCELLENCE IN AMERICAN EDUCATION).

By Mary Ellen Chase. *Journal of the American Association of University Women*, January 1940, 33:74-79.

Miss Chase dusts off some of the ideas about the Puritans that have been handed down to us and holds them up as a band of intellectual, middle-class folks, zealous in their desire to establish a religious, cultural, and educational civilization based on the best that England had known. She shows us the Puritans who had respect for learning for its own sake, respect for manual labor, and respect for religion. It is refreshing to read of people who had convictions and held to them. The article reawakens a feeling of pride in the ideals of the founders of our country.

MUST CHILDREN OBEY? By Harold H.

Anderson. *National Parent-Teacher*, February 1940, 34:27-29.

The question of obedience, whether to a rule or command, presents two sides: one, what need is there for the rule; two, who decides what rules must be made. Mr. Anderson discusses the importance of voluntary or spontaneous obedience to rules that a child understands, sees the need of and relationship to the welfare of all. Teachers and parents need to analyze evidences of conflicts in obedience to

see that children realize that adults are working with them, before they condemn the child. He recognizes occasions wherein obedience must be instantly commanded for the health or safety of the child but, also, that such obedience will be more predictable if past contacts have built up a relationship of mutual trust and confidence.

READING ABILITY AND PERSONALITY

DEVELOPMENT. By C. T. Gray. *The Educational Forum*, January 1940, 4:133-138.

The consideration of reading in relation to the development of personality is discussed in the light of the historic development of reading aims through their many changes. Mr. Gray raises four questions, "(1) Does or can reading do more than give facts and information? (2) Does reading have contributions to make to the fundamental aims of education, such as attitudes, or are its contributions limited to less important phases of education? (3) Does it have inherent characteristics which make it important in the development of the aims of education, or does being a tool reduce it to secondary importance? (4) Will the re-evaluation of reading in terms of personality help to clarify this problem?" These questions are answered through a discussion of studies which show a high correlation between reading and self-control, reading and desirable emotional behavior, reading and personality ratings and the factors that underlie the relationship between reading and personality. For the child, Mr. Gray concludes that reading gradually becomes such an intimate part of his development that it slowly builds unity and coherence in his life.

HOW'S YOUR PRO-NUN-CI-A-TION? By

Archibald Rutledge. *Good Housekeeping*, February 1940, 110:40-41.

Mr. Rutledge not only takes most of us to task for our careless pronunciation of commonly used words, but he goes another step and explains their correct pronunciation.

Research...

Editor, JOHN A. HOCKETT

ABSTRACTS

THE MEASUREMENT OF DOMINATION AND OF SOCIALLY INTEGRATIVE BEHAVIOR IN TEACHERS' CONTACTS WITH CHILDREN. By Harold H. Anderson. *Child Development*, June 1939, 10:73-89.

The author defines two types of behavior, namely, domination and integration. Domination is behavior of one who is rigid and inflexible, who disregards the judgment and desires of others, who uses threats, commands, force, shame, and blame. It is opposed to the open-minded scientific attitude and hinders growth in others. It is the method of dictatorship.

Integrative behavior is defined as behavior of one who is flexible and openminded, who seeks new meanings and better understanding in his contacts with others. It seeks voluntary cooperation and the pursuit of common purposes. It stimulates growth in all persons concerned.

An observation blank was devised for the use of observers in recording the number and type of contacts of teachers with their classes. Some of the 23 categories in the blank are as follows: direct refusal; disapproval, blame, or obstruction; warning, threats or conditional promises; perfunctory question or statement; approval. Two observers used this blank in recording the behavior of several kindergarten teachers for definite time intervals. It was found that there was a high agreement between two observers in recording both the number and type of contacts between teachers and pupils. Data are presented for several hours of observation on three teachers.

These teachers made from 420 to 490 contacts per hour with individual children. In one situation there were only half as many children in the group but teacher contacts continued at the same rate. The author raises the question whether there can be sufficient free play and self-direction under such conditions of constant and unrelenting supervision. The contacts classified as domination were twice as frequent as those recorded as integrative for two of the

teachers and five times as frequent for the third teacher.

Some children had almost no individual contacts with the teachers, while others had as many as 55 per hour. Teacher A's contacts with individual pupils varied from 4 to 40 per hour, with the median child receiving 13 contacts per hour. The ratio of domination to integration contacts ranged for Teacher A's children from .6 to 4.6. The average number of contacts per hour received by the pupils in Teacher C's group were almost twice those of Teacher A. Teacher B's contacts with individual pupils were approximately equal in frequency to those of Teacher A, but the ratio of domination to integration contacts was much greater. She had no integrative contacts with six of her pupils.

In group contacts, the ratio of domination to integration contacts was much higher than for individual contacts, ranging from five to one to over eleven to one.

Such studies can contribute much to our understanding of the meaning of democracy in the classroom.

THE REACTION OF PARENTS TO READING FAILURE. By Mary I. Preston, M.D. *Child Development*, September 1939, 10: 173-179.

An exceedingly distressing situation and a stirring challenge to the primary school are presented in the findings of this investigation. One hundred children who were normal in intelligence, with I. Q.'s ranging from 90 to 140, who possessed an average vocabulary and showed no noticeable physical defects, were selected from among the reading failures in grades two to ten of two large city school systems. There were 72 boys and 28 girls in the group. Each child was given an hour's private interview at school and the parents were interviewed at home. In economic status, the families were fairly representative of the general population, with 11 classified as excellent, 11 poor, and 78 fair or good.

Although many parents accept a child's failure in arithmetic as comparatively unimportant,

practically all of them showed great concern over inability to read. Two-thirds of the mothers and nearly one-third of the fathers expressed attitudes that could be described as worried, anxious, distressed, upset, or greatly concerned about the problem. The attitude of one parent in ten was best described as baffled, shocked, desperate, or disheartened. Two of the fathers and one of the mothers in ten were described as furious, annoyed, sarcastic, impatient, or angered. Some attitudes reflected disgrace; resentment, and disgust. These emotionalized reactions seemed to override intelligence, social standing, and economic security.

The situation seemed to be that many of the children had to live with such attitudes day after day, week after week, and even year after year, with odious comparisons being made frequently between the unfortunate child and a more successful sibling, relative, or neighbor. Almost nine out of ten parents indulged in disagreeable and humiliating comparisons. In fifteen cases irritated parents permitted older brothers and sisters to bully and ridicule the unfortunate non-reader. In 86 per cent of the families, the parents reproached the child for not working harder, telling him he could learn to read if he really worked at it. Two-thirds of the parents called the child such names as dunce, blockhead, boob, or fool.

Many of the parents attempted to compensate for the school's failure by giving the pupils instruction in reading. Their efforts did more damage than good, according to the investigator, most of the parents becoming impatient and cross when the child made little progress. It is interesting to note that a parallel study of successful readers revealed the fact that a majority of them had been given help by their parents.

The parents' displeasure was expressed in other ways than scolding and name-calling. One-third of them deprived the non-reader of such privileges as opportunities to play, take trips, attend shows, and use bicycles or radios. In an equal number of homes, physical punishment was used as a remedial reading measure.

When asked the cause for the child's failure, 52 per cent placed the entire blame on the child, 30 per cent ascribed it to a poor start, 16 per cent blamed the school, and one parent of a child with I.Q. of 112 ascribed it to mental deficiency. Many of the parents had not stopped to consider the effect on the child's personality of his failure in this important skill, not to

mention the devastating results of their own reactions. There were many evidences that the children attempted to meet the parents' criticism and derision by pretending indifference. The proportion of children exhibiting this attitude increased with age.

In the personal interview, the children were asked how they read. Twenty per cent responded that they read well but, when asked to demonstrate their ability, they explained that they pretended they could read so that no one would know. When the interviewer discussed the problem sympathetically, four out of five admitted they tried not to let anyone know of their failure and nine out of ten said they pretended they didn't care when they were really very much worried, ashamed, and discouraged.

If such attitudes and behaviors as those revealed in this study are typical of the parents of non-readers, two imperative obligations of the school are emphasized: that of developing a sympathetic understanding of the problem on the part of parents and that of reducing failures in beginning reading to the absolute minimum.

THE PROBLEM OF STABILIZING KINDERGARTEN ATTENDANCE. By E. T. Casey and A. E. Konold. *Journal of Educational Research*, October 1939, 33:110-113.

Two methods were used to discover the causes for kindergarten absences. Analysis was made of the local situation in Alhambra, California, over a four-year period. Correspondence was carried on with other school systems, university training schools, and kindergarten-primary clubs.

Specific causes of absence include home conditions and failure of parents to appreciate the value of regular kindergarten experience; weather conditions, illness, holiday seasons, and desires of mothers to take children on trips.

The following recommendations are made: (1) that mothers' clubs be organized in conjunction with each kindergarten in order to give parents an understanding of the values of the kindergarten, to secure their cooperation, and to gain insight into the child's background; (2) the formulation and distribution of bulletins by the school system which would present to parents essential facts regarding the physical, social, and educational needs and development of children of kindergarten age. It was also suggested that if the kindergarten were made an integral part of the elementary school, parents might consider it more important.

News . . .

HERE AND THERE

By MARY E. LEEPER

New A.C.E. Branches

New Hanover County Association for Childhood Education, North Carolina

Savannah Association for Childhood Education, Tennessee

Wausau Kindergarten-Primary Association, Wisconsin.

Reinstated: Bellingham Association for Childhood Education, Washington

1940 A.C.E. Bulletin

In February the first bulletin for A.C.E. members in 1940 was mailed to life and contributing members, presidents, secretaries, and publications representatives of Branches. Officers of A.C.E. Branches are urged to see that copies of the bulletin are circulated among members, that its contents are reviewed at Branch meetings, and that teachers who are not A.C.E. members are told about it.

Exploring Your Community was compiled by Gladys L. Potter, director of elementary education in Long Beach, California. The three evaluators, Susan Crutchfield of Tennessee, John A. Hockett of California, and Della A. Perrin of Connecticut, and the thirteen teachers who contributed represent all sections of our country and several kinds of schools.

In the bulletin are suggested ways whereby teachers and children may become more intelligently acquainted with the life and work of the communities in which they live and may make use of its resources. Mrs. Potter uses this introductory statement:

Every school is a part of a community that should form a laboratory for learning. The community which surrounds a school may be rural, urban, industrial, agricultural, poverty-stricken, elite, large, small, desirable, or undesirable, but in each type of community children live and learn through the impact of environmental factors with which they come in contact. One of the major responsibilities of the school is to help children to do better those things they will do anyway in whatever type of community they may live, than would be possible without school experiences. The school curriculum should center about the needs and interests of the children which the school serves in order that they may live more richly and understand more thoroughly the community life of which they are a part.

Order from Association for Childhood Education, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C. Pp. 32. Price 35c.

N.A.N.E. Distributing Center

The National Association for Nursery Education, by action of the Board, has arranged for the distribution of publications from a central point. All communications concerning N.A.N.E. publications should now be addressed to:

National Association for Nursery Education
Distribution Center, W. 514 East Hall
University of Iowa
Iowa City, Iowa

According to the president of the organization, the setting up of the center should in no way be interpreted as the establishment of a headquarters, as it will handle *only* the distribution of N.A.N.E. publications. All other business will be carried on as in the past and communications concerning it should be addressed to:

President: Grace Langdon, Specialist, Family Life Education, Work Projects Administration, Washington, D. C.

Secretary-Treasurer: Christine Glass, Progressive Preschool, Blossom Place, 829 Union Blvd., St. Louis, Mo.

Kindergartens

New York: The *New York Times* of January 27 makes the following statement:

Despite the uncertain budget situation facing the Board of Education, organization of the New York City schools for the spring term has been completed, board officials announced yesterday. Although there had been a question in recent months regarding the continuance of kindergartens, assurances were given by the school leaders that they would remain in operation for the coming semester. In addition, all the services now conducted by the Board of Education will remain intact for the time being at least.

From a release prepared by the New York City Council for Early Childhood Education we learn that:

It is imperative that legislation providing State aid for the support of kindergartens be enacted at

the 1940 session of the legislature of New York State. Although kindergartens have been part of public school systems of this state for half a century, the drastic cuts in educational appropriations in 1939 threatened to close the doors of all kindergartens in New York City, and in many other parts of the state.

State aid for kindergartens was recommended in the report of the Regents Inquiry published in 1939. This report followed a thoroughgoing study of the public education system of New York State made over a period of two years by a group of experts appointed by the Board of Regents. To quote from their report: "Preprimary or kindergarten work, as it is popularly called, should be part of the regular school program and should be entitled to State aid on the same basis as the rest of the elementary program."

New York State cannot afford to leave its kindergartens in the precarious situation which makes them vulnerable for abandonment at this or at any future time. In these unstable times it is more than ever necessary that the welfare of the younger members of society should be protected. It is time to be thinking of expansion rather than contraction of the kindergarten program.

Philadelphia: Two additional kindergartens will open February 1. The number of kindergartens has been limited solely by the space available in school buildings. With the decrease in numbers in the elementary schools, rooms are becoming available for more kindergartens. There are now only four buildings which have not kindergarten units and many buildings have two kindergartens. Because of the increased facilities the kindergarten enrollment has remained practically stable for the last ten years, while the elementary school enrollment has decreased perceptibly.

Logansport, Indiana: With the beginning of the second semester on January 18 two new kindergartens opened. One semester in kindergarten is required in schools having kindergartens. A year ago the city schools inaugurated the policy of checking the birth records of all children entering kindergarten and first grade. Inasmuch as these records must be obtained before working permits are issued, the early verification of ages will prevent delay in the issuing of permits. The primary purpose of this check on ages is to protect the immature child from facing requirements beyond his ability.

Rock Island, Illinois: This city plans to reopen its kindergartens in 1940. Superintendent of Schools E. H. Hanson states that they found it possible to inaugurate kindergartens without any increase in expense. Reasons for this are the decrease in elementary school enrollment due to the lower birth rate, and the elimination of mid-year promotions.

Port Clinton, Ohio: In an effort to determine practices of schools in Ohio similar in size and organization to those in Port Clinton, a questionnaire was sent by the superintendent of schools to 75 exempted village school districts and 13 of the smaller city systems. Seventy-five replies were received.

To the question, "Does your school district maintain a kindergarten as a regular part of the school system?" twenty-two schools, a little less than 30%, replied that they did.

Mary E. Watkins Retires

Mary E. Watkins, an outstanding personality in the field of kindergarten education, retired



MARY E. WATKINS

from active service in the public schools of Buffalo, New York, in June 1939. She received her early kindergarten training at Miss Harrison's School in Chicago, then taught for short periods in Chicago and in the public schools of Buffalo. She later joined the faculty of the Franklin School, a private institution, and also became a member

of the faculty of the Buffalo Free Kindergarten Training School, where young women trained for kindergarten work under the leadership of the late Ella C. Elder.

Miss Watkins and Miss Elder worked together to further the ideals of Friederich Froebel and his philosophy of the proper training for young children. Their unceasing devotion to these ideals and untiring efforts brought about the establishment of kindergartens in all the Buffalo public schools. Upon Miss Elder's retirement as supervisor of kindergartens in 1920, Miss Watkins succeeded her.

Her great understanding and genuine friendliness are treasured by those privileged to know and to work with Miss Watkins and the loss of her active leadership is keenly felt. That she may enjoy many years of good health and happy times in pleasant places is the wish of all her former associates.

(Account prepared by Grace M. Morrison, Buffalo, New York.)

Caroline W. Barbour

With the passing of Caroline W. Barbour on December 11, childhood education lost one of its most devoted and able leaders. Her vital personality and warm human qualities drew children, students, and co-workers to her with deep, sincere affection. They felt her friendly interest in them and in their welfare, and appreciated her inspired teaching.

Miss Barbour's initial professional education at the Chicago Kindergarten Institute, from which she was graduated in 1891, was progressive for that day. Throughout her long years of service she kept abreast of the times, modifying her own teaching in the light of social needs and in keeping with new findings in the fields of psychology and education.

During the early years of her professional life she taught in kindergartens in the Chicago city schools and supervised them in Helena, Montana. In 1902 she began her service of thirty-seven years at what is now the State Teachers College at Superior, Wisconsin, teaching children until 1909 when she organized and became director of the kindergarten training department. During several summers of this period she taught in the State Normal School at Dillon, Montana.

Believing that if children are to have a unified curriculum of experience, kindergarten and primary teachers should be educated together, Miss Barbour became, in 1922, director of one of the early kindergarten-primary departments, thus extending her influence.

For nearly four decades Caroline Barbour was an inspiring leader in the educational work of Wisconsin. Through her influence many kindergartens were established in the state and the work done by her graduates in kindergartens and primary grades is a testimony to her able guidance in the education of teachers.

In 1925-27 she served as president of the Wisconsin Kindergarten Association. When the



CAROLINE W. BARBOUR

Wisconsin Kindergarten-Primary Association was organized in 1929 and a strong leader was needed to draw into a single organization teachers who had been working in two groups. Miss Barbour was chosen to serve as the first president. Wisconsin teachers had confidence in her; they recognized her breadth of vision, her fairness, and her fine, cooperative spirit. A good organizer and a hard worker, she saw that worthwhile work for the education of young children went on during her administration.

It was natural that the International Kindergarten Union should look to Miss Barbour for guidance as it made plans to broaden its scope and become the Association for Childhood Education. She served as president from 1927 to 1929, strategic years in the history of our Association. Her executive ability, her fine spirit, and her sound judgment had much to do with the successful beginning of the A.C.E.

Miss Barbour entered into whatever work she undertook with devotion and a quiet enthusiasm, and she brought to that work distinction. She will be greatly missed as the convention meets in Milwaukee this spring. She would have been a most cordial and gracious hostess and an active worker. We shall still feel her spirit with us, so close was she to childhood education activities in Wisconsin.

(Account prepared by Louise M. Alder, State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.)

Anna H. Littell

Those who knew Anna H. Littell pay tribute both to her gracious personality and to her professional achievements, and were saddened by her passing, in Dayton, Ohio, on September 2, 1939. It is said of her that she spoke unkindly of no one but sought and found the good in everyone.

A graduate of the University of Cincinnati, Miss Littell organized the kindergartens in Dayton in 1896, helped to found the parent-teacher association there as an outgrowth of kindergarten mothers' meetings, and was a faculty member of Dayton Normal School and the summer session of Grand Rapids Kindergarten Training School. She was a charter member of the International Kindergarten Union, serving as corresponding secretary and treasurer from 1907 to 1909, as well as an active member of the Ohio Kindergarten Association.

(Account prepared by Ida Odelle Rudy, Public Schools, Dayton, Ohio.)

(Continued on page 336)

BOYSEN TOYS



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BOX A

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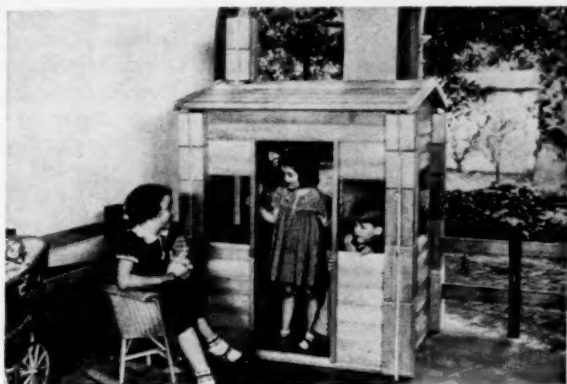
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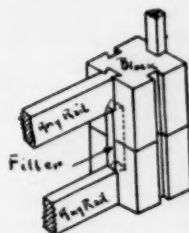
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(Continued from page 333)

Federal Aid to Education

Senate Bill 1305, the Harrison-Thomas Bill, is pending on the Senate Calendar, having been approved by the Senate Committee on Education and Labor during the last session of Congress. (All pending bills hold the same status during this current session that they had at the adjournment of the last session.)

House Bill 3517, the Larrabee Bill, is pending before the House Committee on Education.

Both bills are based on the Report of the Advisory Committee on Education.

(Copies of bills may be obtained from the House or Senate document clerk, House or Senate Office Building, Washington, D. C.)

It has been anticipated that the President might include the Federal aid bill in his legislative agenda. Thus far he has not done so and no mention is made of it in his budget.

The report and studies of the President's Advisory Committee on Education are the most recent links in a long chain of events showing Federal interest in education. The Committee has now published the last of nineteen staff studies following its general report issued in February 1938. Three of these studies deal particularly with the need for Federal aid to education and with certain issues involved in that proposal. These are:

Federal Aid and the Tax Problem. Clarence Heer. 101 p. 15c.

Principles and Methods of Distributing Federal Aid for Education. Paul R. Mort, Eugene S. Lawler, and associates. 99 p. 20c.

Selected Legal Problems in Providing Federal Aid for Education. R. R. Hamilton. 71 p. 15c.

Copies of these reports may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Wildlife Restoration Week

The National Wildlife Federation is sponsoring the Third National Wildlife Restoration Week, March 17-23, in an effort to focus nationwide attention on the natural resources of America. During the week the Fifth North American Wildlife Conference will take place in Washington, D. C., and will be attended by representatives of outdoor clubs from Maine to California and by officials of Federal and State conservation agencies.

For further information address the National Wildlife Federation, Normandy Building, Washington, D. C.